

THE DERIVATION
OF A
CIVICS TEST
BROWN



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The Derivation of a Civics Test

By

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AROLD W. BROWN.



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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTORY

The phrase, "education for citizenship," is generally understood to include all branches of training offered in the schools which contribute directly or indirectly to the formation of civic character. Unquestionably all of the school subjects yield in varying degrees something in the nature of practical values in training for citizenship. Just recognition must be accorded those subjects which supply the child with knowledge and information of a character that permits of rather general application to the affairs of every-day life. Mathematics, English, languages, history, sociology, science, and others perform an invaluable service in the field of citizenship training and the building of character, but their greatest service is not directly concerned with definite instruction in the duties and responsibilities of citizenship.

Civics makes its claim for recognition among school subjects not on the basis of general instruction but on the basis of specific instruction in the duties and responsibilities of citizenship as it appears in and out of school. Elementary courses in civics are offered in the junior high school and are usually devoted to a study of community organization and local governmental affairs with some emphasis on the county, state, and national units of government. Of late years there has been a growing tendency to offer a more advanced course in civics in the senior high school, in which the organization and functions of government in all of its aspects have received thorough-going consideration, and special attention has been given to the state and national units of government.

Purpose. The purpose of this dissertation is to describe the derivation of a civics test.

General Plan of Development of the Dissertation. During the last ten years numerous articles have appeared in educational magazines discussing various aspects of the teaching of civics. A few organizations have carried out investigations in courses of study and methods of teaching civics in the schools and have made recommendations regarding the possibilities of improvement of instruction in this subject. A small number of professional books

have given some attention to teaching of introductory and advanced courses in civics.

At the time the idea of building a civics test was conceived it was hoped that there might be discovered somewhere in these publications an account of some research or researches which might serve as a satisfactory basis for the derivation of a civics test. A careful survey of the field revealed that while there was an abundance of material it was of little value in its original form. Therefore, before the actual building of the test could be undertaken it was necessary to re-organize all of this material so that it might point the way to the development of a testing instrument.

The first part of this dissertation deals with the preliminary studies which later made it possible to build a satisfactory civics test and the second part describes the development and standardization of the test.

The nature of the preliminary studies is suggested by the various chapter headings of the first part of this volume. The contributions which each study made to the solution of the problem of building a satisfactory civics test are outlined below.

Since it seemed desirable at the outset to understand the trend of instruction a complete study was made of the history of civics instruction. Special attention was given to subject matter, aims and purposes influencing textbook authors and teachers, and classroom methods in use during the differentiated periods. With this information at hand it was hoped that present tendencies of instruction might be more clearly defined and that it might determine to some extent the nature of test material of greatest value.

Some interesting information concerning the aims and purposes of civics instruction was gathered while developing the history of the subject but not enough to lend much assistance in setting standards for the selection of test material. A special study was made of this aspect of instruction which served as a basis for the re-statement of the aims and purposes of the teaching of civics.

Neither of the two studies mentioned above helped materially to determine the limits of subject matter upon which investigation revealed authors to be in partial disagreement. All available instructional materials were brought together and classified so that

the scope of topics and points of emphasis might be definitely established. Late reports of committees interested in the improvement of civics instruction were checked against the findings of this researching. This effort determined the subject matter of the test and made sure that it would conform to present standards of classroom instruction.

The remaining chapters of the dissertation describe the successive steps in the actual construction and standardization of the test.

CHAPTER TWO

HISTORY OF CIVICS

Civics, as we are accustomed to think of the subject today, may possibly be better understood by a study of its development during the last century. This subject, as has been the case with many others, did not command universal recognition as a part of the course of study in the schools without a struggle. It has been obliged to win its way on its own merits. Examination of historical sources shows clearly that nearly a century elapsed after its introduction into a relatively small number of schools before the subject became generally recognized. Recent surveys have revealed that civics is not as yet offered in some of our schools. Nevertheless, practically all schools are recognizing the need for definite civic instruction and are making some provision for the teaching of government sometimes in connection with history courses. Considerable progress has been made in the last two decades in the type of civics which is finding favor with schoolmen. Courses of a comprehensive nature are becoming popular. The old type of civic instruction is giving way and is being replaced by one which promises to do much in the way of assisting the pupil to find his place in the new social, economic, and political order. A chapter of this dissertation has been devoted to a historical sketch of the subject in order that the new conception of civics may be more clearly understood. Material for this sketch has been drawn from such available sources as textbooks in civics and their prefaces, encyclopedias, reports of various associations and organizations promoting the subject and making recommendations relative to types of material to be included in courses, time allotment, etc., and articles appearing in periodical literature.

Definite citizenship instruction was not originally offered as "civics"; this term was applied to such instruction some years after a beginning had been made in presenting an organized course known by some such term as "Study of the Constitution." Later citizenship courses were known as courses in "civil government." Finally the term "civics" came to be applied to this particular type of citizenship instruction. Monroe briefly puts the evolution of the term in his valuable article on "Civics."

The term "civics" is now generally employed to refer to the teaching of civil government in our elementary and secondary schools

and in colleges. The term "civil government," which was formerly very commonly used for describing this study, has been abandoned, because in its interpretation it was usually narrowed down to a study of the mere framework of government. The word "civics" is said to have been introduced by Henry Randall Waite (see *Standard Dictionary*), and has the advantage over the term "civil government" in that it is now understood to include: (1) ethics, or the doctrine and duties of society; (2) civil polity, or governmental methods and machinery; (3) history of civic development and movement.¹

While the article, published in 1911, is now slightly out of date and does not bring the history up to the present, it is one of the most valuable contributions dealing with the history of the subject. Community civics has since found a place in the elementary and secondary schools and will be treated later in the chapter.

For the purpose of clarity it seems expedient to divide the history of civics into three periods. The first period extends from the first appearance of civics up to 1890; the second, from 1890 to 1910; and the third period, from 1910 to the present time. These periods are not in reality clearly marked off one from the other as the division might imply but tend to overlap considerably, which is to be expected in any historical development. Nevertheless it appears that such treatment and consideration may off-set any objection that may be raised by virtue of the clear presentation to be gained by this method.

FIRST PERIOD -1890

The first period of civic instruction may properly be called the "Constitutional Study" period, the term suggesting the nature of subject matter that once found favor in the schools of the day.

Beginnings of Civics. The question as to when civics was first introduced into the schools is often raised; and there seems to be lack of agreement among authorities, as will be seen in the following excerpts taken from various sources:

It was not until the middle of the nineteenth century that the idea of teaching civil government in the schools or colleges took any root at all.²

Like most subjects outside of the three R's in the elementary school curriculum and the classics and mathematics in the secondary school course of study, the subject matter of civics was not taught in schools until some years after the middle of the nineteenth century.³

¹Monroe, Paul, under "Civics," *Cyclopedia of Education*, Vol. II, p. 24.

²"Civics and Civics Teaching," *Americana*, Vol. 6, p. 726.

³Monroe, Paul, under "Civics," *Cyclopedia of Education*, Vol. II, p. 24.

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It is difficult to determine the exact time at which instruction in civil government was begun in the public schools. One of the first evidences of an interest in the study of the subject is the plea for civic instruction before the N. E. A. in 1859.⁴

In the second quarter of the nineteenth century not only did books multiply but also the subjects included in the school curriculum. I have noted all the studies ordinarily taken up, but occasionally others were introduced, such as botany, geology, natural philosophy, physiology, etc. Economics was even included in the curriculum of some schools. The most individual of early text-books dealing with this topic was *The Young American*, by S. G. Goodrich, a simple, entertaining dissertation on "government and law; showing their history, nature and necessity."⁵

The preceding quotations leave one with the impression that there was no interest in civic instruction and that training for citizenship, in a narrow sense, was not begun until after 1850. This is not the whole truth, for there is sufficient evidence at hand to prove that considerable interest was shown in such courses and that attempts were made to offer, in a small way, organized courses in civic instruction before the opening of the second half of the nineteenth century. Inglis says:

Thus, at least as early as 1828 Stanbury's *Catechism on the Constitution of the United States* was studied in the English High School of Boston, and in Salem the English High School course of 1842 included the study of "the City Charter, Constitution of Massachusetts, and . . . Constitution of the United States."⁶

Bayard⁷ in the advertisement to the second edition of his text-book writes:

As stated in the preface to the former edition, the principal object of the work is to furnish a text-book for the instruction of youth. The author has learned that it has already been adopted in some colleges and seminaries, and he hopes it may be introduced into general use.⁷

Professor Edgar Dawson of Hunter College, New York City, has pointed out in his article, "Beginnings of Political Education,"⁸ that government was taught to some extent in the schools during the Jacksonian period of our history. He notes several texts which were written and probably came into use before the '50's. Among the list are: Sullivan's *Political Class Book*, 1830;

⁴American Political Science Association, *The Teaching of Government*, p. 1.

⁵Johnson, Clifton, *Old-time Schools and School-books*, pp. 379-380.

⁶Inglis, Alexander, *Principles of Secondary Education*, p. 559.

⁷Bayard, James, *On the Constitution*, 1834, p. 4.

⁸*Historical Outlook*, Vol. IX, 1921, pp. 439-442.

Young's *Science of Government*, 1835; Mansfield's *Political Grammar of the United States*, 1836; Shurtleff's *The Governmental Instructor*, 1845; Burleigh's *American Manual*, 1848, etc.

It is safe, then, to conclude that not only was considerable interest shown in civic instruction before 1850 but that courses designed to fit for citizenship were actually offered in some schools prior to that date. Just what percentage of the total number of schools of the country offered special instruction is not known, as statistics are not available. However, it is not to be expected that more than a small number of schools listed courses of this character.

An examination of some of the early textbooks which served as guides for this new type of instruction reveals some interesting facts regarding the purpose, nature of the subject matter, and methods of teaching involved in the presentation of material. The title pages and prefaces, especially, are helpful in understanding the status of civic instruction in the first period.

Before special provision was made for civic instruction in the schools it was thought by the leaders and citizens of the day that the child would acquire sufficient knowledge of governmental affairs through contact and conversation with adult members of the community. No doubt the New England town meeting, for example, an ideal school in which the younger generation came to know the meaning and duties of citizenship in the community, served well the needs of the time; certainly the younger men present must have come into possession of no small sum of knowledge of community affairs of government and have been deeply impressed with the fact of political responsibility. Here was an excellent opportunity open to the young for vital citizenship instruction. But the incidental method of instruction apparently fell short of the expectations of the political leaders who believed the time had come when definite civic instruction should be intrusted to the school. William Sullivan, a Chancellor at Law, expresses this idea in the introduction to the first edition of his textbook for the use of schools.

If the young acquire any knowledge of the nature of political duties, it must be by inference and accident, and not because it is systematically imparted.*

*Sullivan, William, *Political Class Book*, 1830, p. iv.

Finally, public-spirited citizens came to the conclusion that there was but one solution to the problem, and that was to offer in the school, a democratic institution open to all, an organized course which would afford proper instruction in government and the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. This is precisely what was done in many communities to meet the situation, although it must be remembered that the practice did not become general until some years after the middle of the nineteenth century.

Impetus was given to the movement for definite civic instruction in the schools by the conservative group of political leaders who feared the rising tide of democracy would eventuate in political chaos. Rugg¹⁰ says in this connection:

The first civics book, published in 1797—a little political catechism by one Elhanan Winchester . . . Winchester was a New England Federalist and was greatly "frightened" at the rising tide of Jeffersonian democracy, exhibited first in the last decade of the eighteenth century. His remedy was to teach pupils "sound" principles of government. Again, about 1830, a new type of democracy appeared. Jackson and his adherents, representing the new section, a virile western democracy, came into control of the National government. Again we find textbooks appearing by "guardians of the old order," aiming to counteract this democratic movement by instructing pupils about the Constitution. Thus they thought that "reverence" for existing institutions would be strengthened.

Then, too, interest in special provision for civic education was probably quickened by the great flood of immigration which, it was feared, threatened to sweep away established traditions and the foundations of American government. In 1815 public opinion was all for immigration, but by 1830 loud protests were heard because of the unprecedented number of foreigners flocking into the country. There was grave danger that these immigrants, having lived previously under different social, economic, and political environment, might become a serious menace to American institutions, especially government. That they might not prove loyal to the ideals which our forefathers had so long cherished became a matter of growing concern among the professional class. This condition, no doubt, tended to center attention upon some means of facilitating the process of assimilation, of teaching of patriotism

¹⁰Rugg, Earle, "The Social Studies in the Elementary and Secondary School," *The Twenty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education*, Part II, p. 52.

and American ideals. In the preface to the first edition of the *Science of Government*, published in 1835, the author, Andrew W. Young, urges that greater provision be made for training in citizenship. The following quotation gives some notion of the attitude of the writer, who was expressing the conviction of others of his day.

Distinguished as the American people are for their comparative general intelligence, a large portion of them, it must be confessed, are greatly wanting in political knowledge. . . .

Multitudes in this republic are annually arriving at that period of life, when they are to exercise, for the first time, their privileges as citizens. In the state of New York alone, the number is about *fifteen thousand*, and is composed, chiefly, of those whose education does not embrace even the first principles of political science. It is not to be expected that political power, in such hands, can be exercised with safety to the government, or with benefit to the community.¹¹

The need for citizenship instruction among the immigrant children was even more pressing than that among children of American stock. Consequently efforts were made to inaugurate courses that would supply proper information and knowledge of government to children in the public schools.

Early Textbook Material. Somewhat before this time there was a feeling expressed by prominent citizens that all Americans should become reasonably well informed on the Constitution of the United States, the highest law of the land and the embodiment of the principles of representative government. Suitable books were prepared for the use of families. *The American Guide* by Joshua Fletcher was published in 1810 and contained the Constitution with its amendments, together with material such as the Declaration of Independence. Familiarity with the Constitution, it was believed, would prove very effective in the promotion of good citizenship. When the question arose as to what material should be included in the new course to be introduced in the schools, it was natural to suppose that the Constitution would admirably answer the purpose. Thus we find Constitutional material serving predominantly as the basis of civic instruction during the first period, although there is during the latter part of the period a tendency to introduce less formal material with a view to instruction in the larger duties of citizenship. Some of the title pages of the early texts illustrate the type of material found in the volumes.

¹¹*Ibid.*, 1840, pp. 3-4.

The Political Class Book: Intended to Instruct the Higher Classes in Schools in the Origin, Nature, and Use of Political Power.¹²

A Brief Exposition of the Constitution of the United States with an Appendix, Containing the Declaration of Independence, and the Articles of Confederation, and a Copious Index.¹³

A Familiar Exposition of the Constitution of the United States: Containing a Brief Commentary on Every Clause, Explaining the True Nature, Reasons, and Objects thereof; Designed for the Use of School Libraries and General Readers with an Appendix, Containing Important Documents, Illustrative of the Constitution.¹⁴

It is clear, then, that the subject matter of civic instruction in the first period consisted mainly of the national constitution with its amendments, although sometimes various state constitutions were incorporated for the purpose of giving the pupil a knowledge of his own state governmental organization. The texts published about 1840 usually contained little more than the Constitution itself devoid of any explanation of its provisions whatsoever. It was not unusual to find material such as the Articles of Confederation or the Declaration of Independence included in the back of the early texts. Then, came commentaries on the several clauses of the Constitution explaining in a rather formal fashion the meaning of each. Frequently the clause was quoted and directly below it appeared an explanation of its provisions. There are some instances in which it is exceedingly doubtful whether or not the commentary greatly assisted the pupil's understanding.

Purpose of Early Civics Instruction. The purpose of civic instruction of this first period appears to have been to inspire patriotism and to teach the pupils to revere American institutions. This fact is illustrated by the following excerpts from textbook prefaces.

It has been a prominent object of the author, to impress upon the public mind a due sense of the value of our republican institutions, while he has endeavored to illustrate clearly the principles upon which they are founded.¹⁵

If it [the text] shall tend to awaken in the bosoms of American youth, a more warm and devoted attachment to the National Union, and a more deep and firm love of the National Constitution, it will afford me very sincere gratification.¹⁶

¹²Sullivan, William, *Political Class Book*, 1845.

¹³Bayard, James, *On the Constitution*, 1834.

¹⁴Story, Joseph, *Story on the Constitution*, 1842.

¹⁵Young, Andrew W., *Science of Government*, 1840, p. 8.

¹⁶Story, Joseph, *Story on the Constitution*, 1842, p. 6.

Methods of Early Civics Instruction. The instruction consisted largely in the use of the catechetical method, the teacher repeating the questions occurring in the text and the pupils replying by quoting verbatim answers to the prepared questions. These courses were supposed to supply the pupils with knowledge of government. It was taken for granted that the best way to make good citizens was to furnish pupils with a great many facts and to make sure that every member of the class could make ready replies to any of the questions which the author had seen fit to include in the guides to instruction. Some of the textbook prefaces contained suggestions on method, which discouraged the use of this practice to any great extent and advised that the pupils be allowed to answer the questions in their own words, but it is extremely doubtful whether many inexperienced teachers took much note of it. Some teachers probably went so far as to require that the whole of the constitution be committed to memory, as certain authors testify was the case in some schools. The idea of the use of the question and answer method was no doubt borrowed from the traditional method in vogue in catechetical classes conducted by the church and the method pursued in other subjects in the schools. *The Young Citizen's Manual*, a text on government for common schools, published in 1869, by Rev. Dr. Joseph Alden, President of the State School at Albany, New York, offers an example of a text organized in the form of questions and answers. This little book is probably a representative text used in the elementary schools of the day. This brief volume of 135 pages and 29 chapters proposed to introduce the pupil to the science of government. A sample of the opening chapter, "Origin of Civil Society and Government," gives an idea of the arrangement of material.

1. *Why do men live together in society?*
Because God made men live together in society.
2. *How does that appear?*
God has given to men a social nature, which renders society necessary to their happiness and improvement.
3. *If a man is willing to forego the advantages of society, may he not cease to be a member of it?*
He has no right to forego the advantages of society.
4. *How does that appear?*
God designed that he should live in a society and enjoy its benefits, and he has no right to act contrary to that design.¹⁷

¹⁷*Ibid.*, p. 7.

This arrangement offered an excellent opportunity for the teacher to require the pupils to memorize the answers and recite them as he or she repeated the questions of the text. Books of this type contain definitions of such terms as: law, rights, oligarchy, republic, monarchy, democracy, and the like. There is occasion here again to utilize the memoriter method of recitation and preparation of the daily lesson. Sometimes treatises on society, rights (natural, civil, political and religious), and government, and later a brief historical sketch tracing the development of our free institutions from germs in the early English constitution through the colonial and revolutionary periods of our history appeared at the opening of the books and served as an introduction to the study of the Constitution and the national government.

New Textbooks Appear. Texts appearing in the latter part of this period of Constitutional Study present a different aspect and give hope of a more practical kind of instruction. After the Civil War interest was turned toward the organization of government, state as well as federal. And after 1860 the conception of civic instruction seems to have changed and to have become broader and more liberal. Judd¹⁸ presents the reasons that appear to have influenced the change in civic instruction. First, the close of the Civil War witnessed a great and growing interest in the subject of government, for the most part, national. Out of this came the study of the machinery of government. Second, the social condition of the school itself was favorable to the addition of a course in government in the schools. The financial condition of the country had so improved since the first few years of national life, when the 3 R's constituted the bulk of the school subjects, that a broader education was whole-heartedly welcomed, and civics began rapidly to gain popularity as a regular course. After 1870 the subject began to win its way more easily into the elementary schools because of the liberal attitude of the schools. Third, the larger social viewpoint was beginning to take form, and this new outlook upon life gave added impetus to a study of social organization in its many forms. In 1873 Spencer's *Principles of Sociology* appeared and introduced a new field of study. The effect on civic instruction of this comprehensive view of society is seen more clearly in

¹⁸Judd, Charles H., "The Teaching of Civics," *School Review*, Vol. 26, 1918, pp. 511-532.

the second and third period than in the first, the type of material later introduced bearing witness to the new approach of social study. All of these factors operating together eventually tended to broaden and make more inclusive the scope of civics.

During the last decade of the Constitutional Study period a textbook in civics appeared that stands in marked contrast to those published previously, with possibly few exceptions. Jesse Macy, Professor of History and Political Science in Iowa College, published in 1886 a volume entitled *Our Government* treating with, as the title page states, "How It Grew, What It Does, and How It Does It." He hit upon the idea of a new method of presentation of the subject matter of civics. By this time the educational doctrine of Pestalozzi had become popularized and influential in bringing about desirable changes in classroom methods. He believed that the child in order to learn easily must have actual contact and experience with those things which are the objects of study. Pestalozzi's ideas became widespread and have affected in no small way the matter of arrangement and emphasis of textbook material. Even textbook writers in the field of government have been influenced by the work of this great teacher. The above volume in particular gives evidence of this fact. Macy goes on to say that the study of government should be approached by way of the child's immediate experience with government as it comes under his own observation. The author believed that the first step in training for citizenship was to call the attention of the pupil to the local institutions and their organization. Through knowledge of them the child would come to an understanding of national organization and government, which were ordinarily quite removed from his own experience. The author was also of the opinion that a child could not easily come to a complete understanding of federal government unless he possessed some preconceived notion of state organization and its relation to individual citizens and the community. The study of the Constitution pursued at an earlier date at once focused attention upon a complex formal organization with which personal contact, for the most part, was denied. Macy thought that a more direct study of actual government was conducive to best educational results. Books, in this case, would serve as a guide to observation and assist in correct interpretation.

Macy, however, was not the first to conceive the idea of intro-

ducing the study of civics by a preliminary consideration of local governmental organization. In 1875, eleven years before the appearance of Macy's book, a text of similar organization and viewpoint appeared. George Martin, Agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education and formerly a teacher of history and civility in the State Normal School at Bridgewater, Massachusetts, was the author, and the book was entitled *Martin's Civil Government*. The author states in the preface that among the cardinal virtues is:

*Its comprehensive plan, embracing the state, county, city, and town organizations, as well as that of the United States; as every citizen takes part more directly in the local administration than in that of the general government, he needs to understand the powers and relations of the state and municipal governments.*¹⁹

Characteristics of the Early Textbooks on Government. There is great similarity among the early textbooks on government. Certain minor details have been altered by the respective authors, but in the main the books are of a type quite lacking in individuality as far as the text material is concerned. With the exception of the catechetical books the authors have provided an appendix containing additional or supplementary material including: the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution of the United States, the Amendments to the Constitution, the Articles of Confederation, the Ordinance of 1787, Washington's Farewell Address, Census Report, and essays on certain topics of a general character. The supplementary material is listed in order of frequency of appearance in the early texts. Very few illustrations appear in the books of this period. During the latter part or about 1889 authors began to prepare their manuscripts with simple illustrations. Questions and answers on the text material were included either at the end of the chapters or in the back of the books. Some of them were evidently prepared for use in colleges as well as schools, according to statements on the title page or in the preface. No doubt the same book was used in both types of educational institutions.

CIVICS TEXTBOOKS -1890

Some of the texts published during the first period, including those already referred to, are listed below. The list is presumably

¹⁹Martin, George H., *Ibid.*, 1875, p. 3.

incomplete but includes the majority of the most outstanding texts of the day. They are:

- On the Constitution*, James Bayard, Hogan & Thompson, Philadelphia, 1834, pp. 165.
- Science of Government*, Andrew W. Young, C. Van Benthuyssen, Albany (Fourth edition) 1840, pp. 327.
- Story on the Constitution*, Joseph Story, LL.D., (Dane Professor of Law, Harvard University), Thomas H. Webb & Co., Boston, 1842, pp. 270.
- Political Class Book*, William Sullivan (Councillor at law), Charles J. Hendes and Jenks & Palmer, Boston, 1845, pp. 157.
- The Governmental Instructor*, J. B. Shurtleff, Collins, Brother & Co., New York, (Fourth edition) 1846, pp. 181.
- The Citizen's Manual of Law and Government*, Andrew W. Young, J. C. Derby & N. C. Miller, New York, 1864, pp. 439.
- Manual of American Ideas*, Caspar T. Hopkins, Printed for the author in San Francisco, 1872, pp. 298.
- Martin's Civil Government*, George H. Martin, (Agent of Massachusetts Board of Education and formerly a teacher of history and civil polity in the State Normal School, Bridgewater, Mass.), American Book Co., 1889, (also edition in 1875), pp. 301.
- The Young Citizen's Manual*, Joseph Alden, DD., LL.D., (President of State Normal School, Albany), Sheldon & Co., New York, 1867, pp. 135.
- Manual of the Constitution of the United States*, Israel W. Andrews, DD., LL.D., (President of Marietta College), Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co., New York, 1878, pp. 370.
- Constitution of the United States*, John S. Hart, (Professor of Rhetoric and of English Language and Literature, College of New Jersey), Eldredge & Brother, Philadelphia, 1880, pp. 96.
- Politics for Young Americans*, Charles Nordhoff, Harper Bros., New York, (Revised edition for schools and colleges), 1881, pp. 162.
- The Science of Government*, Joseph Alden, DD., LL.D., (President of State Normal School, Albany), Sheldon & Co., New York, 1886, pp. 296.
- Our Government*, Jesse Macy, (Professor of History and Political Science, Iowa College), Ginn & Co., 1886, pp. 191.
- Studies in Civil Government*, William A. Mowry, Ph.D., Silver, Rogers & Co., Boston, 1887, pp. 215.
- The Civil Government of the United States*, William & Rogers, Rochester, N. Y., 1889, pp. 204.

Organizations Promote Citizenship Training. Various organizations over the country began to give serious consideration to the matter of civic instruction at the close of the first period. One of the most important was the American Institute of Civics which was founded in 1835 for the promotion of better and safer civic and social conditions, by such prominent citizens as Morrison R. Waite, once Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court, F. A. P. Barnard, S. T. D., ex-president of Columbia University, and other professional men. Henry Randall Waite writing for the American Magazine of Civics briefly states the aim and work of the organization:

It [American Institute of Civics] seeks to enlist the conscience, the intelligence, and the patriotism of the country, in efforts to establish a worthy national institution, devoted solely to the promotion in all parts of the Union of the character and qualities of citizenship which are the only safeguards of representative government. . . . The Institute has sought in all the states, and in a large and encouraging measure has secured, the co-operation of school officers and teachers in efforts to secure increased and more specific attention to the imparting of the knowledge, the inculcation of the sentiments, and the formation of the character, which can alone make the common schools of America in any sense of the word nurseries of good citizenship.²⁰

That these organizations rendered an invaluable service to the promotion of citizenship courses in the schools is undisputed. It is probably true that without the concerted effort of these societies, whose membership consisted of men who were intensely interested in the matter of American citizenship and were able to take an active part in promoting the cause of training for citizenship, improvements in this field would have been much longer delayed than has been the case. These organizations adopted a program for the encouragement of a new type of citizenship training such as would actually yield large returns in practical values. They were intent upon bringing school authorities, schoolmen, and the general public to a realization of the fact that the schools which were doing practically nothing in making provision for special courses in citizenship should introduce suitable courses at the earliest convenience and that those schools which were doing something of this character should see to it that the courses offered were not citizenship courses in name only. The influence of these organizations pioneering in promoting better and more effective courses in government in the schools should not be underestimated.

Status of Early Civic Instruction. Some idea of the status of civic instruction in the public schools may be had by reference to another quotation from the same article mentioned above.

The census of 1880 disclosed the significant fact that only about 10,000 of the then 230,000 public schools reported any efforts to give specific instruction with special reference to preparation for citizenship. Within five years after the establishment of the Institute, as indicated in statistics presented in the *Journal of Education* by Hon. W. E. Sheldon of the Institute's board of trustees, instruction in civics had been undertaken in more than 5,000 schools of the grammar grade alone.²¹

²⁰Waite, Henry R., "Foundation Work of a Noble National Institution," *American Magazine of Civics*, Vol. 6, 1895, p. 632.

²¹*Ibid.*, p. 637.

SUMMARY

Briefly, then, the first division of civics history, which extends up to 1890, may well be called the "Constitutional Study" Period since practically all that was done in the schools during the early years in the way of giving special instruction in government confined itself to a more or less detailed study of the Constitution. The books that appeared during this period for classroom use contained the Constitution itself together with running commentaries and questions on the material presented. The knowledge aim was predominant, as is clearly shown in the texts organized in the form of questions and answers on the Constitution. Of course, the purpose of instruction was somewhat concerned with inspiring patriotism and teaching pupils to respect and revere American institutions. It is probably true that on the whole these courses did little more than supply the pupil with a mass of information and knowledge concerning the framework of government and "the fundamental law of the land." The use of the catechetical method, which was exceedingly popular during this period, served to require pupils to memorize the answers to the questions in the texts rather than to think independently about government and the problems connected with it. Moreover, the national unit of government received most attention while the local county and state units were assigned to a position of subsidiary importance and consideration. The texts appearing toward the end of the period give evidence of the development of a distinctly new kind of citizenship instruction, infinitely more practical and appealing to the interests of the pupils.

SECOND PERIOD 1890-1910

The second division includes the years from 1890 to 1910. Instruction in civics throughout this period emphasized chiefly the intensive study of the form and structure of government, both federal and state. As the term "civil government" is now generally applied to a course of this description, it seems logical to call this period the "Civil Government" period of the history of civics. These years rather definitely mark the decline of the "old civics" and the beginnings of a distinctly new type of citizenship courses.

This period, as will be seen later in the chapter, is essentially one of transition. The defects of the old civics courses, exceedingly formal and unfortunately incapable of commanding and utilizing the interest of the pupil, were too obvious to be indefinitely tolerated by conspicuous and influential citizens of the country. This unsatisfactory condition eventually gave rise to an insistent demand for a more efficient type of education for citizenship. Naturally enough the needed changes were not made at once but came after many years of propaganda and persistent reiteration of the increasing necessity for a more practical course of instruction in the affairs of everyday citizenship. Under the pressure brought to bear upon the schools by influential persons the much needed changes in this special field were after some years partially realized.

Earlier in the chapter reference was made to the growth of interest in the study of government in the public schools which was occasioned by the tremendous changes in our national life after the close of the Civil War. A new era was ushered in, and with it came the increased demand for a more intelligent understanding of the duties of citizenship, imposed by the new order. The nature and extent of these sweeping changes in the country will next be briefly considered.

Changes in National Life. After 1869, the year which marked the completion of the great transcontinental railroad, the fertile regions of the West were opened to more rapid settlement and the rich store of natural resources previously inaccessible to the central and eastern sections of the country began to be developed and exploited. The great desert, supposed in early days to have extended over a large portion of Kansas, Nebraska, and the mountain regions, was quickly peopled. In fact, by 1890 Montana, Wyoming, Idaho, Washington, North and South Dakota were members of the Union. At the same time the east was developing rapidly:

population was increasing; immigrants from foreign lands were thronging to the country in which they hoped to find new opportunities and to gain riches; towns developed into cities; hamlets into populous towns. The railroad system spread a network of rails over the middle and eastern section. The factory system, which had not much more than begun by the middle of the century, was building up, changing the old simple systems of industry and bringing in new problems. The iron ore and the lumber and other natural products were seized upon. Corporations were founded to make everything

under the sun. Large fortunes were accumulated. They were made in many ways, but largely by men who shrewdly used the great opportunities which were offered by the natural resources of the country and by the immense development of transportation.²²

With the growth of cities and concentration of population came problems of city government. It was necessary to provide for transportation, gas and water, communication, and other things previously cared for by the individual himself. City governments in many cases became corrupt under the management of extravagant and unscrupulous officials. Unfortunately the majority of people were poorly informed on affairs of government and played easily into the hands of "political bosses." Conditions were so new that only a few men had comprehended the meaning of the new order. There are many instances in which this class succeeded in reaping by unfair means large financial returns from municipal treasuries.

The invention of new machinery hastened the organization of the factory system, which in time gave rise to grave misunderstanding and disputes between the two factions, capital on the one hand and labor on the other. Capital became well organized and occupied a controlling position in the business and industrial world. Labor, in order to protect its rights and privileges, combined and asserted its power by the use of dangerous and violent methods of warfare. Strikes became prevalent throughout the country. Particularly important are the Homestead strike of 1892 and the great Chicago strike of 1894, which almost completely paralyzed the business world for a time. Unions with large memberships were formed among the laboring men to compel employers to award decent compensation and to provide favorable conditions of work. The Knights of Labor was established in 1869 and was supplanted in 1886 by The American Federation of Labor, another powerful combination of workingmen.

The problem of adjustment, of reaching reasonable relations between labor and capital, of finding peace in the industrial world, a peace not brought by warfare or threats of violence, came to be a problem of utmost interest.²³

The problem of trusts and corporations as well as the question of the regulation of interstate commerce became matters of no little concern to the public in general.

²²McLaughlin, Andrew C., *History of the American Nation*, 1916, p. 483.

²³*Ibid*, p. 491.

It is clear, then, that these fundamental changes wrought in the industrial and social life gave rise to a multitude of problems demanding serious consideration and intelligent solution. This thorough-going transformation in almost every department of life had been accomplished over night, as it were, and the exigency of the day was a course of citizenship training which would facilitate adaptation to the new conditions and train pupils to think intelligently about the problems growing out of the changed state of national and community life.

Societies Promote Civic Education. Some years before the end of the first period civics had won recognition in the higher institutions of learning as well as in the secondary and elementary schools of the country. Now that the subject had proved its worth as a means of definite citizenship preparation, a contribution which no other one subject seemed to afford, various educational and other learned societies of national scope began to consider the possibilities of increasing the efficiency of the course. A careful examination of the reports of these agencies enlisted in the promotion of education for citizenship throws considerable light on the character of instruction in civics during the second stage of its development.

Prior to 1890 no action of a definite character was taken to make official recommendations relating to the teaching of civics by such organizations as the National Education Association, the American Historical Association, the American Political Science Association, and the National Municipal League, all of which, among others of lesser importance, have effected desirable changes in subject matter and methods of instruction. While this is true, the reports of the proceedings of the National Education Association, known before 1870 as the National Teachers' Association, show that the attention of this group was called even before this date to the importance of the subject. In 1859 Daniel Read of Wisconsin presented a paper on "The Importance of Civil Polity as a Branch of Popular Education." A committee of the same association in 1863 made a special report on the teaching of the principles of government. Its recommendations were to the effect that all institutions of higher learning should seek to inculcate the principles of intelligent citizenship through the more extensive teaching of United States history in the schools with special refer-

ence to the principles, structure, and history of political institutions. It further stated that more thorough training in citizenship would be greatly facilitated if colleges required such knowledge for admission.

Significant Committee Reports. In 1890 the celebrated Committee of Ten was appointed by the National Education Association to make a complete survey of secondary education, to report its findings, and to prepare recommendations. President Eliot was made chairman and nine subcommittees were appointed to deal with the several school subjects. To one of these was assigned the subjects of history, civil government, and political economy. Its report was made in 1892 at Madison, Wisconsin. The committee meeting was later known as the Madison Conference. The committee recommended that American history and civil government be taught in the last year of the elementary school and in the last year of the high school, one-half of the time being allotted to each. The committee discovered that of those schools coming under their observation in not more than one-sixth of the grammar schools and in approximately one-third of the high schools was instruction of this sort being offered. They further recommended the use of oral lessons and collateral textbooks in connection with United States history and local geography. They urged that some textbook be made the basis of instruction and that some attention be given to collateral reading, reports on assigned topics, observations of the workings of the local machinery of government, and comparisons between American and foreign systems of government, as a part of the regular course.

One of the first to offer suggestions on the teaching of civics as well as that of history was the American Historical Association. The Committee of Seven, appointed in 1896, made an extended and elaborate report three years later to the Association, in which it recommended that American history and civics be taught in the fourth year of high school and as separate courses, where time permitted. In cases where schools could not find sufficient time to offer separate courses, they urged that the two subjects be given together.

Shortly after 1900 there appeared syllabi to guide teachers in presenting courses in civics. As early as 1904 the New England History Teachers' Association published a syllabus of a course con-

structed after the combination plan, both history and civics being presented in a single course, as was suggested in the report of the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association. Similar associations throughout the country protested against the combination plan, with the result that each faction proceeded to sponsor whichever course plan seemed desirable. The issue has been repeatedly raised, as the reports of the investigation of civics instruction show, and considerable significance has been attached to it by those who feel that only in connection with history courses can the best results from civic instruction be obtained. In 1905 another organization interested and active in the improvement of the teaching of government and civics, the National Municipal League, presented a syllabus for the use of elementary and secondary schools. The intent was to outline a course that would give the pupil a better notion of government and of American citizenship. It may be said in passing that this organization was one of the first to enter a plea for greater attention and emphasis on the municipal branches of government, and some effective results have been accomplished through its efforts and publications.

No systematic attempt was made to improve instruction by teachers of government until the foundation of the American Political Science Association in 1902 and 1903 in Baltimore. At the meeting of the Association in 1903 a section was devoted to instruction in government, and a paper was presented by William A. Schaper of the University of Minnesota on the subject, "What do our students know about American Government before taking college courses in Political Science?" A few years later in 1908 the Committee of Five, appointed by this organization to make an investigation on Instruction in American Government in Secondary Schools, made its report. This committee after some deliberation and study reported that, so long as nine-tenths of our population terminate their school training before the high school, it was desirable to give some instruction in government not later than the fifth grade. The committee, therefore, recommended that a discussion of the simple and readily observable functions and organs of local government be introduced at that time. Early instruction, the committee believed, should take the form of observations by the class under the direction of the teacher, and talks or readings by the teacher, and it was intended to add to the

pupil's common stock of information, accounts of happenings, and experiences. It was thought that this work might well occupy one-half year of the eighth grade. Emphasis in the grade work, according to the report, should be placed on local and state governments and should deal with actual projects, activities, and methods of doing things rather than consist of a mere collection of lists of officers, their salaries, and an analysis of the constitution. Recommendations were made to the effect that a half year of more advanced work in American Government be undertaken in the last year of high school. This committee favored offering the study of government as a distinct subject and not combining it with history courses, as had been the common practice of the time. They further urged that more attention be devoted to the study of government as it is related to the individual citizen and to the problems of citizenship. Recognizing the fact that the most successful instruction in government depends largely upon the preparation of the teacher, they further recommended that suitable courses be organized and introduced in teacher training institutions, normal schools, colleges, and universities.

The Committee of Eight, the second committee of the American Historical Association, was appointed in 1905 to make an investigation and report on "The Study of History in the Elementary Schools." This report was made four years later, and while not directly concerned with the subject of civics made some recommendations regarding it. The committee believed that "elementary civics should permeate the entire school life of the child." Early grade instruction, it was stated, should be of the incidental type and directly connected with the regular course of study. It was recommended that civics and history should, so far as possible, be taught as allied subjects but with emphasis at one time upon history and at another time upon civics. The committee was unanimous in the opinion that best results could be secured in teaching government in the seventh and eighth grades when pupils are assigned definite readings in a good text in civics. Regular courses, according to the report, should come in the eighth grade and should aim not so much to develop a knowledge of the machinery of government as the functions of various parts of the national organization. The report states that the special aim of civics teaching should be to help the child realize himself as a mem-

ber of each political group that does the work for him. As this report was to confine itself to a study in the elementary schools, nothing was said about instruction in civics for secondary schools.

It must not be supposed that there were no other organizations of lesser note outside of those specifically mentioned laboring for the improvement of courses in education for citizenship, for this is by no means the whole truth. It would be useless to mention all of them or reproduce here a summary of their numerous reports and recommendations regarding courses in government. Nevertheless an attempt has been made to present briefly some of the most detailed and thorough-going reports of large and well-known associations which have been active in proposing ways and means for overcoming the shortcomings of civic instruction in the schools. This material seems sufficient to give a bird's eye view of the convictions of these organizations and to reveal in a general way exactly what they hoped to accomplish in the field of education for citizenship.

Influence of Reports on Civic Instruction. The recommendations of these committees, consisting mainly of specialists in the fields of history and political science, have proved very influential in bringing about highly desirable changes in the teaching of civics. Writers have been guided by their valuable and helpful reports in the preparation of better textbooks for use in schools; classroom teachers have benefited by suggested outlines of courses and have been led to adopt more effective methods of presentation of subject matter; and educators in general have been awakened to a realization of the almost infinite possibilities of more practical instruction in the subject during the entire school life of the pupil. The force of tradition has been actively engaged in frustrating attempts to improve the character of instruction, and as a result progress in ameliorating conditions has been slow indeed. The idea that "the old way is the best" has proved to be a great obstacle in making necessary changes in the several fields of instruction. Change always involves the expenditure of effort in the making of new adjustments by the teacher, the pupils, and the parents. As it is easier to continue in the old way and with the old methods, there is always some difficulty experienced in bringing about better conditions. Nevertheless, in the last period there is unmistakable evidence of a radically different type of civics in-

struction, which to some extent grew out of the recommendations of these special committees.

Organization of Textbooks. The examination of some of the texts which came into use during the second period of civics shows the tendency of writers to present the organization of government in a less formal way than by a study of the Constitution, accompanied by a brief commentary or an interpretation of its provisions. Usually the texts were organized under three main heads or divisions: Foundations of American Government, National Government, and State Governments. One of the outstanding texts of this period, B. A. Hinsdale's *The American Government*, the revised edition of 1900, illustrates well this plan of organization: Part I treats of "The Making of the American Government"; Part II deals with "The National Government"; and Part III takes up the discussion of "The State Governments." Sometimes a few pages of the texts were devoted to a brief study of local government, which served to prepare the pupil for the study of the larger units of government. Lists of questions or aids to study, reference lists, and lists of topics to be reported on in connection with the course were appended to chapters or included at the back of the books.

CIVICS TEXTBOOKS FROM 1890-1910

Texts published for the use of schools during this period are:

Civil Government in the United States, John Fiske, Houghton Mifflin & Co., Boston, 1891, pp. 360.

Elements of Civil Government, Alex L. Peterman, (Late Principal and Professor of Civil Government in the Normal School of Kentucky State College and Member of Kentucky State Senate), American Book Co., New York, 1891, pp. 204.

Rights and Duties of American Citizenship, Westel W. Willoughby, (Associate Professor of Political Science, Johns Hopkins University), American Book Co., New York, 1898, pp. 336.

The Government of the United States and of Michigan, Newton Thorpe, (Professor of Constitutional History, University of Pennsylvania), and Julia A. King, (Professor of History and Political Science, Michigan State Normal College), Hines, Noble & Eldridge, New York, (First edition 1894), 1900, pp. 253.

The American Government, B. A. Hinsdale, (Professor of the Science and the Art of Teaching, University of Michigan), Werner School Book Co., (First edition 1891), 1900, pp. 422.

Our Governments, Laura Donnan, (Indianapolis High School), Bowen-Merrill Co., Indianapolis, 1900, pp. 299.

- The Government of the State and Nation*, Lyman B. Kellogg, (First Principal of the State Normal School and ex-Attorney General of Kansas), and A. R. Taylor, (President of the State Normal School of Kansas), D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1901, pp. 290.
- The Government*, Salter S. Clark, American Book Co., New York, 1902, pp. 252.
- Government*, Robert Lansing, (Attorney-at-Law), and Gary M. Jones, (Principal of High School, Watertown, N. Y.), Silver, Burdett & Co., New York, 1902, pp. 221.
- How We Are Governed*, Anna Laurens Dawes, Ginn & Co., Boston, (First edition 1885), 1902, pp. 402.
- Government in State and Nation*, James A. James, (Professor of History, Northwestern University), and A. H. Sanford, (Professor of History, State Normal School, Wis.), Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1903, pp. 357.
- School Civics*, Frank D. Boynton, (Superintendent of Schools, Ithaca, N. Y.), Ginn & Co., Boston, 1905, pp. 368.
- Advanced Civics*, Samuel E. Forman, (Author), Century Co., New York, 1907, pp. 396.
- American Government*, Roscoe L. Ashley, (Social Science Department, Schools of Pasadena, Cal.), Macmillan Co., New York, 1908, pp. 325.
- Civil Government*, Paul S. Reinsch, (Professor of Economics, University of Wisconsin), Benjamin H. Sanbourn & Co., Boston, 1909, pp. 253.
- The Community and the Citizen*, Arthur W. Dunn, (Indianapolis Schools), D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1907, pp. 266.

The above list is not complete but is fairly representative of the publications of the period.

Specialists Write Textbooks. For the most part, these texts are devoid of cuts or illustrations, except for the occasional insertion of a reproduction of a painting representing the signing of some important historical constitutional document such as the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence, and are written in an easy style. Textbook writing in this period seemingly fell into the hands of a group of scholars and subject matter specialists rather than into a class of persons in any walk of life who felt inclined to write on the subject, as was the case in the first period, for practically all of the texts examined for this period were prepared by faculty members of the higher institutions of learning, professors of constitutional history or of political science. This is an evidence that the subject was commanding the attention of specialists in the field of government and that much better textbooks were becoming available to assist teachers, still but poorly prepared, in presenting the subject of civics, or of civil government, as it was then called.

Purpose of Instruction. In actual practice, it may be said, not a great deal was done in this period to include in the courses in

education for citizenship material bearing on the problems of national and local welfare. The purpose of instruction seemed to center around impressing the pupil with the significance of government, by a detailed treatment of organization in the county, state, and nation. The general practice was to acquaint the pupil with the branches of government, the cabinet, government officials, their qualifications and term of office, duties and salaries, and the like. The instruction was briefly a study of the machinery of government, with practically no attention to its relationship to the needs and interests of the pupil and his immediate environment. Emphasis was placed on knowledge rather than on behavior, and consequently the result was a dry and uninteresting study, usually pursued in connection with American history. Fortunately, however, this condition was changed as new influences were brought to bear in the latter part of this second period.

Methods of Instruction. In this period there is marked improvement in the methods of presentation of the subject. Authors were attempting to make more readable books and to get farther and farther away from the formal and catechetical treatment characteristic of the earlier books. A more detailed study of local government contributed a great deal toward making government books more interesting and attractive to pupils. Some opportunity was given in the courses for observing government in actual operation.

Influences of Writings on Civic Instruction. Certain writings appeared either preceding or during this transitional period, which unquestionably had an important influence in determining the character of civic instruction. Regardless of the fact that these publications had no immediate effect, there is conclusive evidence of their having profoundly contributed to the gradual breaking down of the narrow conception of instruction in government by the introduction of new and interesting material, which has, since, received much emphasis in civics texts.

The masterpiece of James Bryce, *The American Commonwealth*, appearing in 1888, educated the American people to several aspects of American life of which the vast majority of people had little knowledge and, as Hill says,

awakened textbook writers to an appreciation of the rich storehouse of material which had heretofore been largely neglected in the preparation of manuals for school use.²¹

Bryce in his famous work presented the subject of American government in its federal, state, and local aspects and in addition devoted a portion of his book to the treatment of such topics as public opinion, political parties, lobbies, woman suffrage, railroads, universities, churches, Wall Street, and the negro.

About the same time the new school of sociologists, including Lester F. Ward, William T. Sumner, Albion W. Small, and George E. Vincent, set forth the theory that many intangible institutions other than formal government functioned as effective means of social control in life situations. This contribution later led the way to a consideration of such topics as family, church, and public opinion in the new courses in civics for the elementary and secondary schools.

The work and writings of John Dewey have also been influential in effecting needed changes in the type of civic instruction presented in the classroom. Dewey, as Judd points out, urged "the school curriculum give prominence to studies of industry and of the ethical principles which govern social relations and emphasize social responsibility."²⁵ In 1907 Arthur W. Dunn, formerly of the Indianapolis public schools and for some years connected with the United States Bureau of Education, published a text, *The Community and The Citizen*, in the preface of which the author acknowledges his indebtedness to Dewey for the suggestion that such a course be organized.

Community Civics Appears. The text by Dunn was the first of its kind prepared for use in the lower schools, and its appearance marked the dawning of a new day in training for citizenship. It opens with a study of the settlement of Galesburg and proceeds to trace the development of a community by the use of a wealth of concrete illustration. He then points out the necessity for new agencies of public service to provide for the comfort and happiness of the community. Many institutions in addition to government must forthwith be created and ample provision must be made for

²¹Hill, Howard C., "The New Civics," *Historical Outlook*, Vol. XIV, 1923, p. 225.

²⁵Judd, Charles H., "The Teaching of Civics," *School Review*, Vol. 6, 1918, p. 520.

the regulation of sanitation, promotion of business interests, transportation and communication, city beautification, and the educational and religious needs of the people in the new community. The last four chapters of the book are devoted to an exposition of governmental machinery, pointing out distinctly the relations of the three kinds of government. The author believed that,

the pupil should be kept as far away as possible from the idea that he is studying a book. The real object of his study is the community in which he lives; the text is a guide to the facts of his community life and an interpretation of them.²⁶

Observation, analysis, and inference are the essentials of the pedagogical method adopted in this book.²⁷

To this author belongs the distinction of pioneering in a new world of civic instruction. It will be remembered, however, that as early as 1875 a textbook was organized which approached the study of state and national government by a preliminary consideration of the local organization, but the early books were by no means so comprehensive in their treatment of the local unit as this little volume by Dunn.

Status of Civics in the Second Period. Something may be learned of the progress of civics or civil government in the schools during this period by referring to the *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1926*.²⁸ In 1900, according to the comparative table, a total number of 530,425 schools reported and only 112,465 (or 21.66 per cent) offered instruction in civil government. For 1905 the table shows that out of a total number of 679,702 schools reporting, 112,186 (or 17.97 per cent) gave courses in civil government. Out of a total number of 739,143 schools reporting in 1910 only 114,965 (or 15.55 per cent) offered instruction in civil government. The reason for the decrease in percentage of schools undertaking government instruction is not stated but it may partially be explained on the grounds that some of the schools taught the subject of civil government in connection with history courses or included it in other newly organized courses not known as civil government courses.

SUMMARY

From 1890 to 1910 special instruction in citizenship consisted of an intensive study of the form and structure of government,

²⁶Dunn, Arthur W., *The Community and The Citizen*, 1907, p. vii.

²⁷*Ibid.*, p. viii.

²⁸*Ibid.*, Vol. II, 1916, p. 487.

federal and state as well, usually pursued in connection with American history. These years may be known as the "Civil Government" period of civics history, since the subject of civil government is now understood to include little more than a formal study of the organization and framework of government. This period may be said to be one of transition from the "old civics," formal and narrow, to the "new civics," flexible and broad in its possibilities of application to the affairs of everyday citizenship. The change from the one to the other is not abrupt but gradual, one shading imperceptibly into the other. Local units of government begin to get recognition, and there is a marked tendency toward utilizing the "home units" of government with which the child has some knowledge and contact as a point of departure in the consideration of state and national organization. The purpose of instruction appears to have been to impress the pupil with the significance of government by the presentation of material bearing on the organization of county, state, and national units. The knowledge aim was still dominate although the tendency seems to have been, especially during the last decade of the period, away from it and towards an emphasis upon behavior and thoughtful consideration of the problems of citizenship. Classroom methods became less formal and the pupils were allowed some freedom to observe nearby units of government in operation. Still, even these courses, superior as they were to those of the "Constitutional Study" period, did not meet the demands of intelligent and efficient citizenship training, and eventually gave place to modern courses in government. Improvement in instruction during this period was greatly facilitated by the efforts and recommendations of various societies and organizations interested in the promotion of citizenship instruction.

THIRD PERIOD 1910-

The last period of the history of civics extends from about 1910 to the present writing and will be called the Civics period for the reason that the term "civics," now understood to include all courses in government instruction offered in our schools, indicates the modern type of course which purposes to give special training and preparation for citizenship.

The teaching of civics during this last period means something

quite different from the sort of instruction that was offered during the first and second periods when citizenship courses were restricted to a thorough examination and careful study of the constitutional document and the whole round of governmental machinery. Such a narrow course was certain to meet eventually with severe criticism in progressive circles and to be replaced by a course promising to fill a larger place in the field of civic education. Slowly but surely the material of the original courses was relegated to a position of less importance in the new courses which sought to bring greater returns in the way of preparing the pupil to comprehend the basal principles of social and civic relationships. In this period community civics came into its own, and new material found its way into advanced courses in government instruction which formerly were primarily devoted to a consideration of federal and state organization.

The reports of various committees to their respective associations, active in the study and promotion of civic education, made during this period, constitute a source of valuable information relating to education for citizenship and the problems which have attended its evolution. Reference will be made from time to time to the most important reports of these associations which have earnestly labored for a more practical and efficient type of citizenship instruction.

Reports of Committees on Civic Instruction. The Committee of Five of the American Historical Association, the third of a series of special committees, was appointed in 1907 to make a study of the subject of history in the school and made its report in 1911. Much attention was given in it to the relation between United States history and civil government courses. The report carried recommendations to the effect that American history and government should find a place in the twelfth grade course of study, two-fifths of the allotted time to be devoted to a study of government and three-fifths to courses in history. This plan apparently urged separate courses when time permitted as did the previous reports of special committees to this Association.

In 1915, the United States Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1915, No. 23, appeared as an active agency in civic education and made a significant report, advocating a departure from the traditional civics course of the elementary and secondary schools. This re-

port was prepared by a special committee of the Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association consisting of J. Lynn Barnard, F. W. Carrier, Arthur William Dunn, and Clarence D. Kingsley. It was of paramount importance because it argued for a course in community civics, a course organized along new lines, to be introduced into the elementary grades and the freshman year of high school. It also suggested an outline for presenting the topics which had heretofore received little if any attention in the regular government courses of the second period of civics history.

The social study to which the name "community civics" has been applied is well defined or described in Civic Education Circular No. 1, issued by the United States Bureau of Education.

The aim of community civics is to help the child know his community—not merely a lot about it, but the meaning of his community life, what it does for him and how it does it, what the community has a right to expect from him, and how he may fulfill his obligations, meanwhile cultivating in him the essential qualities and habits of good citizenship.

Community civics lays emphasis upon the local community because (1) it is the community with which every citizen, especially the child, comes into most intimate relations, and which is always in the foreground of experience; (2) it is easier for the child, as for any citizen, to realize his membership in the local community, to feel a sense of responsibility for it, and enter into actual co-operation with it, than is the case with the national community.

But our Nation and our State are communities, as well as our city or village, and a child is a citizen of the larger as well as of the smaller community. The significance of the term "community civics" does not lie in its geographical implications, but in its implication of community relations, of a community of interests. . . . It is a question of point of view; and community civics applies this point of view to the study of the national community as well as to the study of the local community.²⁹

The committee outlined the specific aims of community civics as follows:

1. To see the importance and significance of the elements of community welfare in their relations to himself and to the communities of which he is a member;
2. To know its social agencies, governmental and voluntary, that exist to secure these elements of community welfare;
3. To recognize his civic obligation, present and future, and to respond to them by appropriate action.³⁰

The report further suggested the following elements of welfare be studied as topics: Health, Protection of Life and Property,

²⁹*Ibid.*, p. 11.

³⁰*Ibid.*, p. 12.

Recreation, Education, Civic Beauty, Wealth, Communication, Transportation, Migration, Charities, and Corrections. And in addition, it included topics dealing with the mechanism of community agencies, how governmental and voluntary agencies are conducted and financed. It was suggested that when teachers were sufficiently prepared a portion of the allotted time of the course be devoted to a study of vocations. A bibliography was also prepared to assist in getting material for a study of these topics.

The method of presentation of this subject was to impress the pupil with his dependence upon these several elements of welfare and to show him his relation to them so that he would act in accordance with the highest civic ideals. Provisions were made to give the child an opportunity to live his civics in and out of school by making application of his civic knowledge to the affairs of life. Such a course, then, emphasized the fact that the business of civics was not alone to prepare for citizenship but to allow opportunity for practice in performing the duties of citizenship as occasion arises in the smaller community within the school. This practice, it will be noted, was in harmony with the developmental aim of education. Emphasis was placed on civic action and civic habits rather than on civic knowledge, which is a means and not an end in itself. This type of instruction was eminently of greater value in realizing the highest order of citizenship values than had been the purely informational study pursued so long in the schools of the country. The way was now open for a gradual improvement in all departments of citizenship training.

In 1911 the American Political Science Association selected a committee to report back to the Association with recommendations for the improvement of instruction in government. The committee on Instruction was composed of: Charles G. Haines, chairman, Professor of Government, University of Texas; J. Lynn Barnard, Professor of History and Government, School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia; Edgar Dawson, Professor of Political Science, Hunter College, New York City; Walter Fleming, Professor of History, Louisiana State University; Mabel Hill, Associate Director of the Garland School, Boston; Frank E. Horack, Professor of Political Science, State University of Iowa; James A. James, Professor of History, Northwestern University. Five years later this com-

mittee of seven members made one of the most comprehensive reports in the field, containing recommendations covering civics instruction in grades, three to twelve, inclusive. The report presented data that had been secured by the questionnaire method on the status of instruction in government, with some recommendations and suggestions to teachers of the subject. Briefly, the committee found that civics teaching in the elementary school divided itself into three periods. They believed that in the first three or four grades provision should be made for impressing the pupil with some fundamental civic notions as applied to the home, the school, and the neighborhood. Grades four to six should attempt more specific instruction relating to local affairs, with emphasis upon some of the functions which government performs and which the citizen enjoys as a member of a community. In the junior high school, embracing grades 7 to 9, it was believed, a more definite type of instruction should be afforded with emphasis still upon the functions and some attention to the machinery of government, local, state, and national. An advanced course in civics was to occupy a place in the last three years of high school, although the report does not say whether the course be one or one-half year in length. As a part of this report the committee suggested courses of study for each of the divisions. In addition to the study made of the elementary and secondary schools the committee conducted an investigation of the political science courses as they were carried on in the Universities and the Colleges of the country and made recommendations for the same. The special reports prepared by assisting state committees on the status of government instruction in the twenty respective states reveal the fact that up to that time there was some general agreement among the practices followed in the various states, although each state was attempting to carry out its own program as it saw fit.

At about the same time that the Committee on Instruction was preparing its report, the Committee on Social Studies of the Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association was making a study of the condition of "The Social Studies in Secondary Education." The report of this committee was published by the United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1916, No. 8. The committee favored the offering of one-half year of history and one-half year of civics of the

community type in the eighth grade of the elementary school; civics and economic history in grade nine; and one or one-half years of Problems of American Democracy in grades ten to twelve. This last course was to include instruction dealing with material drawn from the several departments of the social sciences which would serve to acquaint the pupil with social, economic, and political problems as they are found in American democracy. As it seemed impracticable to introduce separate courses in each of these branches of study, all of which were in themselves worth while, the committee agreed that the most effective method was to organize a combination course which would not unjustly limit the pupil's knowledge to any one field but would familiarize him with the general problems of citizenship. It was impossible to crowd into the high school program of studies, already filled to capacity, even a single extra course; therefore it was decided to resort to a combination course, rather than to deny any one or all of the several departments reasonable consideration, under the caption of Problems of American Democracy.

In 1921 a joint committee consisting of members of the American Historical Association and the National Education Association presented its report. On the whole the recommendations of this committee were similar to those made by the Committee on Social Studies. The joint committee favored a course in social, economic, and political problems for twelfth grade study, preceded, however, by certain history courses, organized in such a fashion as to lay a foundation for an intensive treatment of social, economic, and political issues. The courses were to deal primarily with political aspects, but were also to take full account of economic, industrial, and social factors which explain or have a bearing on political movements.

In 1921 a special committee, the appointment of which was authorized at the previous annual meeting to define the scope and purposes of a high school course in civics, headed by Professor W. B. Munro, of Harvard University, reported back to the American Political Science Association meeting held at Pittsburgh. The report was not concerned with instruction offered in the earlier school years under the name of community civics or elementary civics but with the civics course of the latter years of the secondary school. The committee believed there was urgent need for an

authoritative definition of the term "civics" because of the growing tendency to broaden the scope of civics to include practically "the whole range of the social sciences, economics, sociology, ethics, and international relations with the basic subject American Government thrust far into the background."³¹ Objection was raised to this practice. The committee believed that in spreading high school instruction in the subject over so broad an area the course tended to become superficial and ill-organized. This objection was made, not because of the breadth of the subject alone, but because of the lack of co-ordination that impairs the educational value of a subject. The opinion of the committee was that such courses as "Problems of Democracy" or "Social Problems" or the like did not serve to give adequate and necessary instruction in the development and organization of political, economic, and social institutions. They believed that the problems of the present day may be most profitably studied only when the pupil has been given a comprehensive and systematic course dealing with the organization and functions of government. The report says:

The aim of the course should not be to impart information but rather to give the pupil an intelligent conception of the great society in which he is a member, his relations to it, what it requires of him, how it is organized, and what functions it performs. From his study of Civics the pupil ought, accordingly, to learn something about the chief and economic organizations and relations. Yet it should not be forgotten that in the field of social studies all roads lead through government. No matter whether the topic under discussion be finance, banking, public health, poor relief, transportation, or labor problems, we must at all times reckon with governmental organization, policy, and action as great factors in the situation. The study of governmental organization and the functions of public authority ought therefore to be the center or core of any high school course whose chief aim is to inculcate sound ideals of citizenship, to emphasize the duties of the citizen, and to afford any group of public problems.³²

The committee outlined a course which they believed to be systematic and well correlated for the third or fourth year of the senior high school. It indicates in a general way what they conceived to be the outside limits of the subject, although, as the report states, the outline does not include all or the only topics which come within the general field suggested.

The extent to which these recommendations have effected

³¹Munro, W. B., "Report of a Special Committee to the American Political Science Association," *American Political Science Review*, Vol. XVI, 1922, p. 116.

³²*Ibid.*, p. 117.

changes in classroom practice may not be estimated from these reports. It is necessary to refer here to other sources to ascertain the amount of influence they have had in promoting a new type of civic instruction in the schools of the country. Two studies, one conducted by the North Central Association and the other by the Secretary of the National Committee for Teaching Citizenship, reported recently, reveal the status of civics as it is being offered in the secondary units of our public school system.

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, having for one of its aims the consideration of common educational problems and the devising of best ways and means of solving them, published in 1920 a report of three special studies, one of which was to discover, as fully as possible, precisely what practices were being carried on in the secondary schools with the direct intent of developing qualities of citizenship among students enrolled in the schools of the North Central area. Questionnaires were sent out to these schools and the answers were tabulated by the committee assigned to this special investigation.

The questionnaire laid down the thesis that: "Good citizenship consists of being able and desirous of playing one's full part in the co-operative activities of one's community, state, and nation. It results from (1) altruistic emotions (interests and desires), (2) correct mental notions (knowledge and ideals), and (3) trained habits of response (spontaneous and studied actions)."²²

The committee then proceeded to formulate its questionnaire to ascertain what the secondary units were doing with respect to each of these three aspects of training. One thousand one hundred and eighty replies were received from schools distributed over the eighteen states comprising the North Central territory. The conclusions arrived at as a result of the investigation are very interesting and reveal the trend of instruction in matters of citizenship. It seems wise to include the summary of the report at this point.

In the first place, it seems to the writer that the study clearly shows that the North Central Association Secondary Schools are, as a body, alert and alive to the need for providing training in citizenship, and that they are employing, possibly as fully as could be expected, all of the available means to attain that end.

Second, the study shows that although the Association is a unifying agency, much flexibility of administration is to be found among the various schools, each adapting its program to local conditions and needs.

Third, although knowledge about the rights and duties of citizen-

²²*Report of the North Central Association, 1920, p. 28-A.*

ship is still the most emphasized aspect of civic training, still provisions for stirring the emotions and for exercising the will in pupils are conspicuous features of many schools, and the means employed to obtain these ends are suitably varied in character.

Fourth, courses of study designed primarily to give direct instruction and training in citizenship are, for the most part, deferred to the last two years of the school work, thereby bringing their influences to bear solely upon those pupils who have before them a complete high school education.

Fifth, teaching ideals of citizenship and personal character seems to be one of the leading aims of many courses of study in the high school—particularly the courses of history, English, and foreign languages—and is not confined to courses in elementary social science.

Sixth, the "inspirational" and "interpretative" powers of teachers in all subjects are relied upon as the best and surest agencies for developing qualities of citizenship among pupils.

Seventh, agencies that make their appeal to the eye—dramatics, pageants, moving pictures, stereopticon slides, and real concrete situations in the adult world—are being extensively employed to teach the lessons desired.

Eighth, courses in Elementary Sociology, in Occupations, and in Morals, Manners, and Life Problems are not yet finding any conspicuous place in the school program of studies.

Ninth, suitable textbooks for courses in all phases of citizenship instruction are, as yet, few in number.

Tenth, the interrelating of school work and out-of-school interests is particularly noticeable in matters pertaining to instruction in citizenship.

Eleventh, high school boys and girls are readers of books and magazines that are worth while, and read with avidity if material that is interesting is placed before them.

Twelfth, school authorities are very much in doubt regarding the best ways to teach pupils the wholesome use of leisure time, and need to be instructed.

Thirteenth, biographical material as an agency in civic training holds a conspicuous place in the organization of most schools.

Fourteenth, the Boy and Girl Scout movements have already gotten a firm footing in the halls of the Secondary Schools.

Fifteenth, military training for high school boys has likewise found much support among North Central Association schools.

Sixteenth, student self-government has become a reality in approximately one-fourth of the schools reporting, although in only one-half of these schools is the plan given publicity or operated by means of formal machinery.

Seventeenth, most schools seem to place great faith in the civic training afforded by the school papers, debating clubs, mock elections, and other types of student co-operating organizations.

Eighteenth, the Community Center idea, so far as it applies to the use of the high school building for that purpose, is of relatively small significance.

Nineteenth, many school men favor the establishment within the schools of some kind of a society the chief purpose of which should be the deepening among students of the sense of responsibility to the state.

Twentieth, a goodly portion of the school authorities rely upon the personal example of teachers, the regular class work, and the regular discipline of the school to furnish the civic ideals, knowledge and training needed by youths who attend.³⁴

³⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 34-A—35-A.

Status of Civic Instruction During Third Period. In 1922 the United States Bureau of Education published in Bulletin No. 45 a report on the "Status of Certain Social Studies in High Schools" prepared by the Secretary of the National Committee for Teaching Citizenship showing the progress of the social studies. A comparison was made in the report of the status of civics instruction from 1918 to 1922, which revealed the fact that the percentage of schools offering the subject had for some reason decreased from ninety-five to eighty-eight per cent. The returns from the schools filling out the questionnaires in the 1918 investigation showed that out of the 5,054 schools reporting, ninety-five per cent were offering courses in civics over against that of the 1921-22 survey which showed that eighty-eight per cent of the 6,624 schools replying were including civics in the program of studies. The decrease may possibly be explained on the basis that some of the schools had substituted introductory courses of sociology or economics for civics. In both of these studies the attempt was made to find out what percentage of the schools offering civics were presenting modern courses of the subject. The old civics was defined as that study which deals with the lifeless machinery of government, municipal, state, and federal, unrelated to activities and problems of life, formal and uninspiring; the new civics, it was stated, must conform to a much higher standard than that of the first study. The significant fact was that there was an increase of over seventy-five per cent in the number of schools teaching the modern type of civics in 1921-22 as compared with that of 1918-19. It was also found that a large number of the schools followed the practice of using various magazines for supplementary reading in connection with civics classes and of making observations and investigations outside of the school building for the purpose of gathering first-hand information on civic affairs. Regarding the grades to which courses in civics were assigned the report says:

The figures for the seventh and eighth grades are incomplete, inasmuch as only those seventh and eighth grades are included which are under the control of junior high schools. Of the total number of courses taught by schools reporting (in the second investigation), 359 are in the seventh and eighth grades, 2,359 in the ninth and tenth grades, and 3,872 in the eleventh and twelfth grades. In the two early years the courses are required in 90% of cases and in the last two years in 83%.³⁵

³⁵Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1922, No. 45, *Status of Certain Social Studies in High Schools*, p. 7.

The subject of community civics seems to have been assigned at present to the grades of the junior high school. In fact, it may be said that the elementary study of government was called forth by the demand for some sort of a course of definite citizenship instruction in this newly organized unit. The junior high school movement began about 1910 and has since gained considerable popularity because it aims to provide a type of training adapted to the needs of all pupils capable of profiting by its offerings. It was believed by the promoters of this movement that the high rate of pupil mortality occurring in the last years of the elementary school and the first years in the secondary school might be greatly decreased if a unit of the school system could be so organized as to provide greater educational opportunity suited to the needs, interests, and abilities of pupils. It is quite evident, then, that such an organization required as a part of its program of studies a course designed to give more attention to the immediate affairs of community government and welfare. The old type of civics, dry and uninteresting as it was, and removed from the pupil's experience, did not meet the approval of those responsible for the reorganization of the high school, and consequently a new course evolved to satisfy the demand of this unit. The scope of this introductory course, a more formal study of government, was revealed by the United States Bureau of Education Bulletin (1915) No. 23 cited above. Since that time numerous books have appeared in the market which treat of the topics outlined or suggested by the report. There is every reason to believe that community civics has come to stay and has a large contribution to make in the way of promoting civic knowledge, interests, attitudes, habits, and ideals in the pupils of grades seven to nine who may not remain in school long enough to profit by the more advanced courses in civics offered late in the senior high school.

Regarding the courses offered in the senior high school purporting to give training in citizenship, there seems to be a difference of opinion among certain professional educational groups as to what should constitute the offering of this unit. The Committee on the Social Studies reporting in 1916 recommended that a combination course be given in the twelfth grade under some such name as "Problems of American Democracy." It must be remembered that the introduction of social and economic material has

been attempted as a part of the subject matter of instruction in civics within approximately the last decade, and the success with which it will meet the needs of the pupils is being demonstrated. The tendency seems to be in the direction of broadening the courses in order to meet the new demands that our changing society makes upon courses designed to make our future citizenship better informed and more intelligent in matters of government and political issues and questions affecting public welfare. Well organized texts and better prepared teachers no doubt will be conducive to realizing more effective results from training for citizenship and at the same time remove some of the conditions which have called forth serious and severe criticism from organizations laboring to improve civics courses.

The majority of the reports of associations, listed above, favor an advanced course of civics for the eleventh or twelfth grade of the high school. It is naturally presupposed that pupils enrolling in these courses have had certain prerequisite courses in history and, perhaps, an elementary course in civics in the lower grades and have mastered certain material necessary for carrying on satisfactorily the more advanced work in the study of government. During the last few years there have appeared on the market texts especially prepared for the more intensive study of political affairs, which are organized largely after the plan suggested in several of the official committee reports seeking to improve citizenship courses.

Purpose of Civic Instruction. A study of the textbooks in civics published in this last period reveals the changing conception of what such instruction should aim to accomplish in affording more complete citizenship training. The purpose of the teaching of this special subject appears to have become very much broader than that which predominated in the previous periods. Roscoe L. Ashley in the preface to his text for secondary schools, *The New Civics*, briefly states the evolution of viewpoint in special citizenship instruction. He says,

Once we were content to study institutions. Next, we added an elaborate study of the organization of our governments. Still later, we emphasized the activities of government as more important than constitutions and governmental machinery. Now we stress citizenship, because the youthful citizen should know how society is organized and what he should do for society as well as what it should do for him, as a citizen and member of that society.³⁶

³⁶Ashley, Roscoe L., *The New Civics*, 1918, p. v.

The new conception of civics places a premium on civic action as an end rather than on civic knowledge and information, as was the practice in earlier years. Fundamentally this change of purpose represents an attempt to apply in this special field of instruction certain principles of educational theory which have been found to produce desirable and lasting returns. At the point where the old type of instruction fell short, the new type promises much in the way of promoting civic attitudes and responsibilities, the formation of appropriate civic habits, and the inculcation of civic ideals.

Methods of Instruction. The new conception of education for citizenship has been accompanied by certain changes in methods and devices of instruction, as recent survey studies show. Collateral reading, including books other than the classroom text and periodicals such as *Survey*, *Literary Digest*, *Outlook*, *Independent*, *Review of Reviews*, *Current Opinion*, etc., has been encouraged and required by teachers of civics for the purpose of acquainting pupils with the problems of citizenship and supplying a stock of ideas regarding them and possible means of disposing of them. The recitation period has been considered as a time for class discussion of the material of the text as it applies to those institutions within the pupil's experience and as an opportune time to promote clear and logical thinking in matters of citizenship. Local investigations, trips, and excursions, under the direction of the teacher, have also served to impress the child with the reality of government and its actual workings, in the local community as well as in those larger aspects of the community organization, the county, state, and nation. More than that, some schools have gone so far as to bring before the school assemblies public men to discuss interesting topics bearing on citizenship matters; introduced self-governing organizations within the school; encouraged the debating of public questions; supervised survey of communities and vocations; given every possible opportunity for the performance of the duties of citizenship within the school; and cooperated with various local organizations in the promotion of civic ideals.

Improved Textbooks in Civics. The civics texts of this period have increased in number and in size, because of the inclusion of the new material and illustrations which up to 1910 did not find a place in the older books. Generally speaking, the modern texts

contain a wealth of illustration, covering a wide range of subjects, government buildings, industrial centers, documents, maps, transportation, and the like. The intent is to assist the pupil to understand the great institution of government by showing him where it functions and how it functions, and to create a greater interest in it by means of visual experience and presentation. Study helps or lists of questions for review or further study are abundant in the late texts in addition to selected reference lists and suggested topics for investigation.

The texts of this period may be divided into two rather distinct classes; those of the community civics type and those of the advanced civics type for the use of the higher grades. Although the lists of textbooks on civics are probably incomplete, there is reasonable assurance that most of them are contained in the lists.

Community Civics Texts

- Our America*, John A. Lapp, (Lecturer in Political and Social Science, Indiana University), Bobbs-Merrill Co., Indianapolis, 1916, pp. 398.
- American Citizenship*, Charles A. Beard, (Associate Professor of Politics, Columbia University), and Mary H. Beard, Macmillan Co., New York, 1917, (Revised edition 1920), pp. 330.
- Community Civics*, R. O. Hughes, (Peabody High School, Pittsburgh), Allyn & Bacon, Boston, 1917, pp. 471.
- Our Community*, Samuel H. Zeigler, (Director of Civics and History, High School, Cleveland, Ohio), and Helen Jaquette, (Teacher of Civics and History, Frankford High School, Philadelphia), John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, 1918, pp. 205.
- The Citizen and the Republic*, James A. Woodburn, (Professor of American History, Indiana University), and Thomas F. Moran, (Professor of History and Economics, Purdue University), Longmans, Green & Co., New York, 1918, pp. 398.
- Community Civics and Rural Life*, Arthur W. Dunn, (Specialist in Civic Education, U. S. Bureau of Education), D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1920, pp. 507.
- Everyday Citizenship*, Frederick F. Blackly, (Professor of Government and Director of Municipal Research, University of Oklahoma), and Miriam E. Oatman, Charles E. Merrill Co., New York, 1920 and 1922, pp. 525.
- Community Civics for City Schools*, Arthur W. Dunn, (Specialist in Civic Education, U. S. Bureau of Education), D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1921, pp. 581.
- Everyday Civics*, C. E. Finch, American Book Co., New York, 1921, pp. 326.
- Preparing for Citizenship*, William B. Gitteau, (Superintendent of Schools, Toledo, Ohio), Houghton Mifflin & Co., Boston, 1922, pp. 238.
- Community Life and Civic Problems*, Howard C. Hill, (Head of Department of Social Science, University of Chicago High School), Ginn & Co., Boston, 1922, pp. 528.
- Loyal Citizenship*, Thomas H. Reed, (Professor of Municipal Government, University of California), World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, 1922, pp. 293.
- Citizenship*, Ellen C. Levis, (Assistant Principal and Instructor in Civics, Jacobi School, New York), Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1923, pp. 438.

Advanced Civics Texts

- The American Republic*, S. E. Forman, (Author), Century Co., New York, (First edition 1905), 1911, pp. 318.
- Government and Politics in the United States*, William B. Gitteau, (Superintendent of Schools, Toledo, Ohio), Houghton Mifflin & Co., Boston, (First edition 1910), 1916, pp. 473.
- American Government*, Frank Magruder, (Instructor of Politics, Princeton University), Allyn & Bacon, Boston, 1917, pp. 427.
- Government in the United States*, J. W. Garner, (Professor of Political Science, University of Illinois), American Book Co., New York, 1911 and 1920, pp. 416.
- The New Civics*, Roscoe L. Ashley, (Social Science Department, Schools of Pasadena, Cal.), Macmillan Co., New York, 1918 and 1920, pp. 407.
- The American Democracy*, S. E. Forman, (Author), Century Co., New York, 1921, pp. 434.
- American Government in 1923*, Frank A. Magruder, (Associate Professor of Political Science, Oregon Agricultural College), Allyn & Bacon, New York, 1921, pp. 427.
- Problems in American Democracy*, T. R. Williamson, (Assistant Professor of Economics and Sociology, Smith College), D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1922, pp. 524.
- Problems of American Democracy*, H. R. Burch, (Head of the Department of History and Commerce, West Philadelphia High School for Boys), and S. H. Patterson, (Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, University of Pennsylvania), Macmillan Co., New York, 1922, pp. 575.
- Social Civics*, William B. Munro, (Professor of Municipal Government, Harvard University), and Charles E. Ozanne, (Teacher of Civics in Central High School, Cleveland, Ohio), Macmillan Co., New York, 1922, pp. 664.
- Form and Functions of American Government*, Thomas H. Reed, (Professor of Political Science, University of Michigan), World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, 1916, 1921, and 1922, pp. 498.
- Problems of American Democracy*, R. O. Hughes, (Peabody High School, Pittsburgh), D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1923, pp. 616.

It has been suggested that civics instruction was greatly affected by the World War which brought greater demands in the way of more intensive training in the affairs of citizenship. In general, the effect of the war has been to call attention to educational shortcomings and to suggest more effective methods of schoolroom procedure and practice. But to say that civics instruction has been completely revolutionized as a result of the recent struggle is to fall into grievous error. Civics subject matter treats mainly of institutions, their organization, and their functions; and any extensive change in them must of necessity eventuate in corresponding alterations in subject matter. Up to the present time there is no evidence to show that the war has effected sweeping changes in our fundamental institutions which are organized to promote the public welfare. Nevertheless, the significant fact of the promotion of interest in education for citizenship must not be underestimated, since the effect of the war

has been to emphasize greatly the need for a type of instruction which would yield manifold practical American citizenship values, and include a consideration of international relationships. During the war the United States Bureau of Education prepared and issued to schools outlines for courses in civics, and it is perhaps unnecessary to add that they found their way into many of our schools and served well the ends towards which they were directed. No doubt, it is true that fresh illustrations of government, as it was seen to function under the stress of war and conditions with which most of the pupils were quite familiar, did serve to impress the idea of reality of government and its work, but further than that the specific effects are not discernible. There is reason to believe, however, that the importance of lasting encouragement of citizenship training has been effectively brought home to the public in general and that as time goes on greater citizenship returns will be forthcoming to meet future national emergencies.

SUMMARY

In conclusion, the last period of this history witnesses the introduction of modern government courses which are known in the schools generally as "Civics." From 1910 up to the present time sweeping changes have been made in the aim, content, and method of courses, designed to provide pupils with special training in the affairs of citizenship. "Community civics" has been recognized as a very important addition to the course of study of the junior high schools and even in some of the grades of the senior high school in various parts of the country. It is a course distinctly elementary in character and treats of the local units of government without neglecting to give some attention to state and national organization. Civics proper, which now includes a study of the various units of government, especially state and national, is rather definitely assigned to the senior high school and attempts a rather detailed and thorough consideration of the form, organization, and the functions of government. Previous to this period the emphasis in civics, using the term broadly, was placed mainly on form and organization but is now shifting to another aspect of equal importance—functions or what government does for the people. Sociological and economic material is being introduced

into the modern courses, especially in the case of "Problems of American Democracy," courses in which the subject of government is approached by a study of modern problems, social, economic, and political, to afford greater practical values for those who are to assume the duties and responsibilities of adult citizenship. The knowledge aim during this last period has been assigned a place of equal importance with others looking towards the development of civic responsibility, proper civic habits, and ideals, and clear thinking in matters of citizenship.

CHAPTER THREE

AIMS OF CIVICS

The subject of civics has been introduced into the schools and has become a required subject in many of them because it affords certain possibilities in the way of very definite citizenship training. It may be said, then, that the purpose of civics instruction is to produce better citizens and contribute to the formation of civic character. Thus is the aim of civics generally stated; but the statement does not proceed far enough to assert the specific ways in which the subject should make its significant special contributions in the process of citizenship training. Therefore, it becomes necessary to search out the more specific aims or objectives that should determine the type of training conducive to the realization of the largest possible returns in citizenship values.

It seems that a course in any given school subject, to bring the largest possible returns, presupposes the existence of rather definite goals or objectives in the mind of the teacher or the classroom instructor. Certainly instruction is not being carried on for the mere satisfaction of the teacher but for the enlightenment of the younger generation in some of the essentials which are deemed necessary to the best living. If this be true, then, does it not seem important to formulate in a clear-cut fashion the several aims which are to be realized in each of the school subjects? Of late years the matter of definite goals or objectives has been forcibly called to the attention of educators and to those of the public school system who come into intimate contact with school children. Now that the need for definite aims has been recognized it is quite important that each subject should receive careful study and consideration that out of it may come a clear statement of exactly what is to be accomplished in the several school courses. Unfortunately there is still much to be accomplished in this particular field, although the efforts made so far are extremely gratifying. There is every reason to believe that in the next decade some very valuable contributions will be forthcoming in the way of definite aims or objectives in the courses offered in our public schools.

The question arises at this point as to what has been done in the field of civics instruction to set up definite objectives whose prime purpose is to serve as guides to instruction. A careful search reveals the fact that at present there seems to be but a

small amount of material available on the subject. True it is that some attempts have been made to formulate suitable objectives, but it must be admitted that on the whole the lists are not entirely satisfactory because of their lack of definiteness and specific character. There is a possibility, however, of arriving at a list of fairly satisfactory aims by bringing together the best of the available material on the subject, and out of it developing a group of objectives upon which writers are generally agreed. This is precisely what this chapter of the dissertation attempts to accomplish.

Sources of Material. A general search for material was conducted, which embraced a variety of sources, including the reports of associations and organizations interested in the study and promotion of education for citizenship, magazine articles contributed by specialists in government instruction, papers prepared by educators generally interested in improvement in civics instruction, books treating with methods in this special field, numerous reports of speeches delivered to groups of teachers and others, courses of study, and the introductions and prefaces of the most outstanding textbooks which have appeared in recent years. Not all of these sources, to be sure, have yielded much of a definite nature; but it is certain that the material referred to represents the best work that has yet been attempted in the formulation of objectives in education for citizenship.

Selection of Material. Many of the sources referred to were not directly concerned with the subject of objectives and therefore were not especially helpful in formulating a list of satisfactory goals. Most of them dealt with other problems, but such material as was considered relevant and valuable was selected and set aside together with the references. In some cases, the material had a direct bearing on the subject and was organized as such, but even in these cases the writers were inclined to speak generally and in such vague terms that it was almost impossible to select paragraphs, sentences, or phrases that would assist greatly in making a list of objectives, well-defined and infinitely more valuable than those already available to teachers and others. Usually the material was taken from the articles by whole sentences, rather than by smaller units in order that the thought of the writer might not suffer by the interpretation sometimes imposed by paraphrasing. In some instances certain elaborations were

made of various topic sentences which it seemed briefly expressed the viewpoint of the author, and as they did not particularly serve to offer further assistance in this task, a few words or phrases were used as introductory or appended at the end to assist in understanding and were formulated in such fashion as to add or detract nothing from the original thought of the author. Material which had no direct bearing on aims or purposes of civics was excluded from the consideration.

Classification of Material. After the available material had been collected and brought together, it was necessary to originate a scheme or plan of classification such as would include the contributions of various writers. It was finally decided that most of the material fell in a general way under a few major heads. Under the head of "knowledge" a certain number of excerpts from articles and other sources seemed to fall rather naturally; others under such heads as "sense of responsibility," "ideals," "habits," and "thinking." In some cases the material could well have been placed under one or another caption, and naturally it was disposed of according to the judgment of the classifier. On the whole, the matter of classification was not arbitrary, however, but rather favored the natural order. At the same time, for the sake of convenience, it seemed expedient to divide the material on the basis of class; *i. e.*, according to the source of material. Four classes of contributors were generally evident: certain reports of committees, consisting of subject matter specialists and educators, members of various associations; educators, faculty members of higher institutions, superintendents of schools, and others; subject matter specialists, those contributors directly concerned with questions of subject matter and engaged in imposing certain reasonable limits upon the subject; and certain textbook writers who have made a point of stating the aims and purposes in the prefaces of their texts.

Statement of Aims. After a careful study and consideration of the material grouped under the several heads, it was necessary to attempt a fair statement of particular aims or objectives that would include the various statements or contributions and still not border on independent thinking or prejudice of any sort. The material in organized form, together with the objectives stated in a definite fashion, appears below:

First Aim—To Develop a Practical Knowledge of the Governmental Agencies That Promote Public Welfare.

Committee Reports

For citizenship it is necessary that the pupil have a "practical knowledge of social agencies and institutions." (*Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 35, p. 13).

"Civics should . . . direct attention to social agencies close at hand and to the informal activities of daily life that regard and seek the common good." (*Ibid.*, p. 14).

One of the aims of community civics: "to know the social agencies, governmental and voluntary, that exist to secure these elements of community welfare." (*Report of the Committee on Social Studies on the Reorganization of Secondary Education*, Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1916, No. 28, p. 12).

It is essential to have: "a reasonable comprehension of the practical workings of our country's government." (*Proceedings of the American Political Science Association*, 1908, Vol. 5, p. 252).

Civics instruction should serve: "to awaken a knowledge of the fact that the citizen is in a social environment whose laws bind him for his own good" and "to acquaint the citizen with forms of organization and methods of administration of government in its several departments." (*The Teaching of Government*, 1916, American Political Science Association, p. 27).

Educators

"Civic intelligence, which includes that information and knowledge which must be acquired in the process of developing his civic capacities in order to make them effective in conduct. Full freedom, even of services, cannot exist without the truth which frees the spirit of man." (Hamilton, J. G., and Knight, E. W., *The Making of Citizens*, 1922, pp. 13-14.)

"Education has a new work, that of clarifying the basal principles of this relationship (social) and of giving information concerning the very complex relations in society. (Monroe, Paul, *Text-book in the History of Education*, 1917, p. 715.)

"The first requisite for good citizenship is an enlightened mind—particularly a mind enlightened in respect to social affairs themselves." (Davis, C. O., "Citizenship and the High School," *Educational Review*, Vol. 61, 1921, p. 215.)

"Among American citizens there is a too common ignorance of fundamental facts and principles upon which to base wholesome conduct and sound economic, social, political and intellectual attitudes." (Hamilton, J. G., and Knight, E. W., "Education for Citizenship, *Historical Outlook*, Vol. XII, 1921, p. 196.)

"We must imbue the mind of American youth with abundant reliable knowledge, elementary, technical, professional, liberal, in due proportion, and with respect to conditions and circumstances." (Shahan, T. J., "Education for Citizenship," *Bureau of Education Bulletin*, 1920, Vol. 29, p. 108.)

"Pupils should observe as abundantly as practicable the phenomena of social and political co-operation, control, and management as exhibited in the community life of the city, country, and state." (Bobbitt, Franklin, "Curriculum-making in Los Angeles," *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, No. 20, 1922, p. 60.)

"There is a general ignorance of the fundamental facts and principles upon which a sound social and economic policy can be based." (Staples, L. C., "Education for Citizenship," *Historical Outlook*, Vol. XI, 1920, p. 85.)

"In respect to his political environment he (the citizen) should be familiar with the working of government." (*Ibid.*, p. 89.)

The teaching of citizenship will naturally be concerned with: "the instruction in subject matter essential to intelligent understanding of the problems of citizenship." (Lewis, W. D., "Teaching Citizenship," *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, Vol 58, 1920, p. 532.)

"The responses to the question as to the aim of the course in civics indicate, when taken in the broadest implications of the statement, the main purpose is related to the practical value of the subject as preparation for citizenship." (Koos, L. V., "Administration of Secondary School Units," *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, 1917, p. 112.)

Subject Matter Specialists

It is necessary: "that the people be taught to understand better the nature of social institutions." (Jenks, J. W., "Citizenship and the Schools," *Second Yearbook of the National Herbart Society*, First Supplement, 1896, p. 198.)

"The growth of a better civic life will come slowly through a knowledge of facts as to how the business of a municipality or other community is run." (Hill, Mabel, *The Teaching of Civics*, 1914, pp. 7-8.)

"Civic education seems to cultivate civic intelligence which includes civic knowledge" and "Power to organize the knowledge with reference to one's own experience." (Dunn, A. W., "The Trend of Civic Education," *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education*, 1914, p. 402.)

Textbook Prefaces

"My aim . . . has been to present . . . the leading facts concerning the organization and activities of national, state, and local government in the United States." (Garner, J. W., *Government in the United States*, 1920, p. 3.)

"We have tried . . . to emphasize great principles of government rather than to give a description of the intricate details of political organization and social work." (Beard, C. A., and Beard, M. R., *American Citizenship*, 1917, p. viii.)

"Whatever else 'community civics' may accomplish, one of its foremost aims should be to make government, including that of the nation, mean something to the young citizen." (Dunn, A. W., *Community Civics and Rural Life*, 1920, p. iv.)

"first, the origin of government has been briefly outlined, . . . second, the structure or machinery of government has been described; and third, the functions or activities of government have been presented." (Gitteau, W. B., *Government and Politics in the United States*, 1916, p. v.)

This book: "aims to deal with principles of governmental organization and activity in such a way as to be a suitable basis for the most thorough high-school course in preparation for citizenship." (Reed, T. H., *Form and Functions of American Government*, 1922, p. vii.)

This text should serve: "to show how the state has developed from a single organization for defense to a complex socialized society of today; and to make clear that government is not operated according to preconceived theories, but is a living organism developed by the people to meet the needs resulting from changing conditions." (Magruder, F. A., *American Government*, 1917, p. v.)

Second Aim—To Impress the Pupil with Civic Responsibilities and Opportunities for Public Service.

Committee Reports

"The immediate problem is to impress upon the pupil the fact that he is a member of the community and ought to be an active constructive mem-

ber of it. The teaching of the subject ought to point continually towards civic duties as well as toward civic rights." (Munro, W. B., "Special Committee Report to the American Political Science Association," *American Political Science Review*, Vol. XVI, 1922, p. 117.)

"Civic education should develop in the individual those qualities whereby he will act well his part as a member of the neighborhood, town or city, State, and Nation." (*Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 35, p. 13.)

"The pupil should feel that he will be responsible, in co-operation with others, for keeping the nation true to the best inherited conceptions of democracy." *Ibid*, p. 14.)

Educators

One of the aims of civics: "the development in the pupil of a sense of social-civic responsibility." (Inglis, Alexander, *Principles of Secondary Education*, 1918, p. 560.)

"Good citizenship in the school stands for recognition of the rights of others." (Cooper, F. B., "How We are Training for Citizenship in Our Public Schools," *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, 1920, Vol. 58, p. 63.)

"The problem of civic training is par excellence the development of large group consciousness." (Bobbitt, Franklin, *The Curriculum*, 1918, p. 131.)

Civics should aim: "to teach that the best citizen is one who renders the best service to his fellows; to foster sentiments of loyalty, fair play, and social responsibility." (Kittrell, C. A., "An Important Factor in Teaching Citizenship," *School Review*, Vol. 29, 1921, p. 368.)

Special objectives of civic education: "Training in dispositions and abilities to participate actively in parties, volunteer service, and other activities of a positive nature designed to promote the public welfare." (Snedden, David, *Civic Education*, 1922, p. 32.)

"Perhaps the most serious danger of all is due to the lack of social consciousness, of a philosophy of conduct which is based, not on individual prosperity alone, but on the welfare of the whole community." (Staples, L. C., "Education for Citizenship," *Historical Outlook*, Vol XI, 1920, p. 85.)

"Finally, a very great American characteristic is the lack of social or civic consciousness." (Hamilton, J. G., and Knight, E. W., "Education for Citizenship," *Historical Outlook*, Vol XII, 1921, p. 195.)

"training for citizenship consists of the employment of such processes as will fire the human spirit with altruistic zeal." (Davis, C. O., "Citizenship and the High School," *Educational Review*, Vol. 61, 1921, p. 218.)

Civic training should develop: "The ability of the citizen to do his individual share in performing those social functions for which all citizens are equally responsible." (Bobbitt, Franklin, "Curriculum-making in Los Angeles," *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, No. 20, 1922, p. 50.)

"The end of good citizenship goes beyond understanding; it involves sensitiveness to obligation and the development of a willingness and ability to act with other men for the common good. From the beginning to the end of teaching the chief aim should be to get the child to perform his part in civic life . . . action is the goal in civic teaching." (Hill, M. C., *The Teaching of Civics*, (Taken from the introduction written by Henry Suzzalo), 1914, p. viii.)

Subject Matter Specialists

"the prime essentials in training for citizenship . . . regard for the rights of others." (Jenks, J. W., "Citizenship and the Schools," *Second Yearbook of the National Herbart Society*, First Supplement, 1896, p. 195.)

"Civic education aims to cultivate . . . a sense of responsibility." (Dunn, A. W., "The Trend of Civic Education," *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education*, 1914, p. 402.)

Civics should serve: "to emphasize the intimate and reciprocal relation between the welfare of the individual and the welfare of the home and society." (*Course of Study in Geography, History, and Civics*, Indianapolis Public Schools, 1914, p. 10.)

Textbook Prefaces

"Now we stress citizenship because the youthful citizen should know how society is organized and what he should do for society as well as what it does for him." (Ashley, R. L., *The New Civics*, 1917, p. v.)

This book aims to: "impress upon the pupil his responsibility, as a future citizen, for the development of a better government." (Magruder, F. A., *American Government in 1923*, 1921, p. v.)

Third Aim—To Promote Proper Civic Ideals and a Desire to Act in Conformance with them.

Committee Reports

"The study of government organization and the functions of public authority ought . . . to be the center or core of any high school course whose chief aim is to inculcate sound ideals of citizenship." (Munro, W. B., "Special Committee Report to the American Political Science Association," *American Political Science Review*, Vol. XVI, 1922, p. 117.)

"The comprehension of the ideals of American Democracy and loyalty to them should be a prominent aim of education." (*Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 35, p. 14.)

Education for citizenship demands: "loyalty to ideals of civic righteousness." (*Ibid.*, p. 13.)

Educators

"Good citizenship is the product of . . . right ideals." (Kittrell, C. A., "An Important Factor in Teaching Citizenship," *School Review*, Vol. 29, 1921, p. 366.)

One of the aims of civics: "The development in the pupil of attitudes and tendencies to act in conformance with desirable ideals of social-civic activity." (Inglis, Alexander, *Principles of Secondary Education*, 1918, p. 560.)

"Preach and practice political idealism," (Hunt, R. D., "Political Science and Practical Citizenship," *Educational Review*, Vol. 61, 1921, p. 191.)

"The promotion of the appreciation, ideals, attitudes, and minor amounts of understanding necessary to procure conformity to legal and other directions and restraints" may be considered an important aim of civics or civic education. (Snedden, David, *Civic Education*, 1922, p. 32.)

Subject Matter Specialists

"In the training for citizenship, then, our first, if this is well learned it need be our only lesson, is the teaching of proper ideals." (Jenks, J. W., "Citizenship and the Schools," *Second Yearbook of the National Herbart Society*, First Supplement, 1896, p. 79.)

Textbook Prefaces

"The way to improve citizenship is to establish in the mind correct political ideals." (Forman, S. E., *The American Democracy*, 1921, p. v.)

Fourth Aim—To Provide for the Formation of Desirable Civic Habits.

Committee Reports

Citizenship training should result in: "habits of cordial co-operation in social undertakings." (*Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 35, p. 13.)

Educators

"Good citizenship is the product of . . . correct habits." (Kittrell, C. A., "An important Factor in Teaching Citizenship," *School Review*, Vol. 29, 1921, p. 366.)

"to provide training in leadership and afford practice in perfecting habits of citizenship should be the function of any comprehensive scheme to teach the business of being a good citizen." (*Ibid*, p. 368.)

"Unless such knowledge (of our social-civic organization), such a sense of social responsibility, such civic ideals, are translated into forms of behavior and result in proper civic action, the values of the study of civics cannot be attained." (Inglis, Alexander, *Principles of Secondary Education*, 1918, p. 560.)

Citizenship training should be concerned with: "the development of habits appropriate to citizenship in a democracy through the various co-operative activities open to our young people." (Lewis, W. D., "Teaching Citizenship," *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, 1920, Vol. 58, p. 532.)

Civics should attempt to bring about: "Conformity" (to appreciations, ideals, and attitudes) and that "being measured in terms of specific forms of social activity, such as honesty in property relationships, obedience to traffic laws, etc." (Snedden, David, *Civic Education*, 1922, p. 32.)

"It will be the aim of this course, Problems of American Democracy, to develop habits of thought, feeling, and action essential to citizenship and leadership in our democracy." (Lewis, W. D., "Teaching Citizenship," *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, 1920, Vol. 58, p. 532.)

The necessary equipment of the effective citizen partly consists of "Civic attitudes, dispositions, habits of mind, and heart, which express themselves in a disposition to serve the community and the nation for the best interests of all." (Hamilton, J. G., and Knight, E. W., *The Making of Citizens*, 1922, p. 14.)

"The civic training of men and women should be designed to prepare them for definite and specific action" and to develop "The ability to act in civic ways . . . by acting in the ways desired." (Bobbitt, Franklin, "Curriculum-making in Los Angeles," *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, No. 20, 1922, p. 60.)

"there is the obligation on the high schools to see that knowledge and sentiments relating to citizenship are translated into habits of conduct." (Davis, C. O., "Citizenship and the High School," *Educational Review*, Vol. 61, 1921, p. 220.)

Subject Matter Specialists

"Unless the knowledge which the pupil receives is transmuted into impulses to right action, it has little relation to the performance of the duties of citizenship." (Bourne, H. E., *The Teaching of History and Civics*, 1902, p. 99.)

"Civics is a training in habits of good citizenship rather than merely a study of government forms and machinery." (*Course of Study in Geography, History and Civics*, Indianapolis Public Schools, 1914, p. 9.)

One of the aims of civics: "to awaken and stimulate motives that will lead to the establishment of habits of order, cleanliness, cheerful co-operation, sympathetic service, and obedience to law." (*Ibid.*, p. 10.)

Civic education should cultivate: "a spirit and habit of team work." (Dunn, A. W., "The Trend of Civic Education," *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education*, 1914, p. 402.)

Fifth Aim—To Stimulate Independent Thinking and the Making of Impartial Judgments in Civic Affairs.

Committee Reports

Citizenship requires: "good judgment as to the means and methods that will promote one social end without defeating others." (*Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 35, p. 13.)

"The aim (of civics) should be to develop an intelligent attitude towards questions of the day." (Munro, W. B., "Special Committee Report to the American Political Science Association," *American Political Science Review*, Vol. XVI, 1922, p. 117.)

Educators

"The ability to do civic thinking and to arrive at civic judgments is to be developed in youth in ways and under conditions as nearly like those in which it later is to function during adulthood as practicable." (Bobbitt, Franklin, "Curriculum-making in Los Angeles," *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, No. 20, 1922, p. 60.)

"There is need to develop the habit of individual analysis and individual judgment based on sound knowledge and correct information." (Hamilton, J. G., and Knight, E. W., "Education for Citizenship," *Historical Outlook*, Vol. XII, 1921, p. 195.)

"The only safeguard for clear thinking on social, economic and political problems is a critical spirit, fortified by a supply of fundamental facts." (Staples, L. C., "Education for Citizenship," *Historical Outlook*, Vol. XI, 1920, p. 85.)

A genuine feeling of membership in a social group is developed by learning: "To think and feel and act with the group as a part of it as it performs its activities and strives to attain its ends." (Bobbitt, Franklin, *The Curriculum*, 1918, p. 131.)

Subject Matter Specialists

"Civic education aims to cultivate . . . judgment, when confronted by a civic situation or by a choice of methods of meeting a situation." (Dunn, A. W., "The Trend of Civic Education," *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education*, 1914, p. 402.)

"the prime essentials in training for citizenship . . . independence and impartiality of judgment." (Jenks, J. W., "Citizenship and the Schools," *Second Yearbook of the National Herbart Society*, First Supplement, 1896, p. 195.)

Textbook Prefaces

"Care has been taken to cultivate the problem attitude; and to encourage the spirit of individual investigation and open-minded judgment on the part of the student." (Williamson, T. R., *Problems in American Democracy*, 1922, p. viii.)

"the great emphasis in this text has been placed on making the pupil think for himself" on matters of citizenship. (Hughes, R. O., *Community Civics*, 1917, p. iii.)

"A Nation is safe for democracy only when it is composed of citizens who think seriously and intelligently and who act on their convictions." (*Ibid.*, p. iii.)

"It (civics) should train his judgment and develop his ability to discuss civic problems, yet it should emphasize continually the important fact that he is not solving these problems but simply trying to weigh arguments and proposed solutions." (Ashley, R. L., *The New Civics*, 1917, p. vi.)

CONCLUSION

The first objective formulated, *To Develop a Practical Knowledge of the Governmental Agencies That Promote Public Welfare*, lays special emphasis on the knowledge aspect of education for citizenship. That a certain fund of knowledge is necessary for the young citizen to understand and to participate in the affairs of government is an indubitable fact. The young citizen cannot be expected to comprehend the business and meaning of government without having had some experience with it either directly or indirectly. It is necessary, then, in a course in civics that information of various sorts dealing with government, its organization and functions, be presented to him through the medium of the textbook and by the teacher in the classroom. The young citizen should be instructed in the fundamental principles which govern social relationships in order that he may arrive at a more complete understanding of the purpose, organization, and operation of the institution of government, which is in reality a scheme of community co-operation for the promotion of the best interests of the public. He should be led to see that the institution is not something which is mere fiction, but a real, living, developing, dynamic thing and that, in order for him to profit largely by its benefits, he must possess reliable information and knowledge concerning it. He should be impressed with its scope and general field of service as well as with its community aspects. Certainly without a knowledge of government and what it attempts to do there can be little hope of the schools producing the best type of citizenship. This, then, is one of the essentials of citizenship training.

To Impress the Pupil with Civic Responsibilities and Opportunities for Public Service is the second objective that has been developed in this chapter. It is quite apparent that government cannot long function successfully or efficiently without the co-operation of those for whom it was organized and it exists. Ob-

ligations come with the benefits which government secures for each and every citizen. It is of paramount importance, then, that the future citizen understand his relation to the great institution and what his obligations consist of with regard to the organization and the persons with whom he comes into contact in the ordinary affairs of life. He must be impressed with the fact that his selfish desires must give way when they conflict with the realization of certain social ideals conducive to the happiness and welfare of the group of which he is a member. He should understand that the possibilities of success of governmental operation depend upon his intelligent and active co-operation with those agencies which strive to secure the greatest social benefits. He should be instructed in the many opportunities for public service, whether they may be on the battlefield in time of war, at the election booths on election day, in the jury box, on the local school board, in the administrative department of the city, or in the ordinary occupations of life. The young citizen should be taught that with the privileges of citizenship come numerous opportunities to make a contribution by personal service, sometimes demanding sacrifice of individual interests, for the sake of making government productive of the greatest possible returns. For the above reasons this aim should claim recognition in citizenship training in the public schools.

The third objective which commands a place in the list of aims or purposes of civics instruction is, *To Promote Proper Civic Ideals and a Desire to Act in Conformance with them.* In all social relationships there is urgent need for the establishment and perpetuation of high standards of conduct. Certain it is, then, that ideals of citizenship which serve to point out ways of achieving the highest type of conduct in the dispatch of the affairs of citizenship should be assigned a place of emphasis in citizenship training. Ideals of service, co-operation, loyalty, honesty, justice, courage, honor, and so on through a long list, should be inculcated and promoted in the regular classes of civics instruction. Proper ideals of citizenship should have a tremendous effect in ameliorating conditions which present obstacles to the efficient operation of government. It must not be concluded, however, that the mere establishment or presentation of ideals relating to the highest standards of citizenship will necessarily eventuate in a practical

outcome or change in behavior. Opportunities must be provided young citizens for the exercise of these ideals which are to become powerful influences in determining one type of action rather than another less desirable in a civic situation. The presentation of these ideals should be accompanied by unceasing efforts on the part of the teacher to arouse in the young citizen an unquenchable desire to act in conformance with them. If this type of training is carried out carefully and thoroughly on every occasion that presents itself in the work of the classroom, there is every reason to believe that the operation of government may be greatly facilitated.

To Provide for the Formation of Desirable Civic Habits is the fourth special objective that is worthy of note. While ideals may be said to function primarily in cases in which the element of choice is present, there are certain civic situations which call forth a response identical to that demanded in a similar situation. If this be true, then it would appear that certain situations should elicit a response that has been more or less automatized. On this basis it is logical to conclude that certain desirable habits of acting, thinking, and feeling in civic situations should be established. Countless opportunities present themselves in the classes devoted to civics instruction which should be utilized in making permanent these desirable habits of response. The ideals promoted in connection with courses in government should be crystallized into enduring habits which are conducive to the best interests of government. Habits of earnest co-operation, lawful conduct, fair play, unselfish service, thoughtful consideration of others, sympathetic attention to the needs of those less fortunate, etc., should be encouraged, and every possible effort should be made for the exercise of these desirable habits of civic action. Many benefits of inestimable worth should come to the individual and to the group as a result of the formation and exercise of habits that are in keeping with those ideals which should govern to an increasingly large extent civic relationships and situations. Emphasis, then, should be afforded this objective, which provides for the formation of desirable civic habits.

The last special objective, *To Stimulate Independent Thinking and the Making of Impartial Judgments in Civic Affairs*, calls for recognition in training for citizenship. Constantly the young

citizen is confronted with situations in which he is obliged to select or choose a course of action. Wise choices, such as will bring happiness and satisfaction to the individual and to the community upon which he is dependent for social privileges and benefits, necessitate at the outset knowledge and information regarding government and civic affairs in general. With this material at hand, the pupil should be taught how to handle and manipulate it so that his thinking will be a valuable asset in assuming the duties and obligations of good citizenship. The fact should be emphasized that in matters of government the citizen should make his own judgments as far as possible on the basis of available facts and allow no prejudiced opinion in any way to influence his own good judgment. Matters of national, state, or local government should receive fair consideration, and decisions should not be made hastily but rather as a result of detailed study of the situation, carefully weighing of each bit of argument, both pro and con, in order to arrive at an impartial and fair judgment of the case. There is much to be done in this particular field of education for citizenship. Questions relating to government and methods of reorganizing and adjusting the present organization should be presented in an intelligible fashion so that the pupils may profit largely by the sort of activity which they will be called upon to carry on in adult society as full-fledged American citizens. In this way the subject of government may be recognized as decidedly real and worthy of intensive study by prospective citizens.

It is quite impossible to say that one or another of these objectives is most important. In fact, it is very undesirable to attempt such a selection, as all of them are important and deserving of special emphasis. Knowledge alone would not eventuate in the type of citizenship that the public has a right to expect the schools to produce. So with the other aims stated. One depends upon the other and becomes important only as emphasis is temporarily shifted to it for the purpose of making special training effective and generally practical.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF REPRESENTATIVE CIVICS TEXTBOOKS

Civics, like other school subjects, has been thoroughly reorganized and readjusted from time to time to meet the demands which the increasingly complex order of citizenship imposes upon it. It has been observed in the history of the development of this subject that many significant changes have been made since it was first introduced into the schools. During the last decade particularly important changes have been forced in the matter of emphasis and scope of civics courses and these have been called forth to make training for and in citizenship more efficient and richer in practical values. Only recently, it has been noted, civics texts for the use of schools have included the discussion of the "problems of American democracy" or, more specifically, a consideration of the social, economic, and political issues of our present social order. It may be said that changed social, economic, and political conditions have occasioned corresponding changes in courses designed to prepare for the responsibilities and duties of citizenship and the proper adjustment to the new environment and life situations.

Generally speaking, civics texts published within the last few years may be roughly divided into two classes: the first, consisting of those books primarily devoted to a study of the organization and functions of government together with more or less attention to the social and economic aspects of that institution; the second, composing those books which approach the study of the organization and functions of government by way of a consideration of social, economic and political problems incident to group life. It appears that both types aim to teach fundamental principles of government, although there is some difference in the methods of presentation and the viewpoint of authors. No attempt will be made in this volume to consider the merits, demerits, or relative effectiveness of these types of texts, for they are questions quite apart from the present study and belong to another field of research and investigation. It is necessary, however, to ascertain from representative books of both classes a notion of the content or range and scope of civics and precisely what large divisions or topics of civics are generally accorded emphasis. Such is the present task.

Selection of Representative Texts. In order to arrive at a definite idea of emphasis and scope of topics treated in civics texts, it was necessary to select those texts which are representative of the lists prepared by various publishing houses. Among the most outstanding texts published since 1917 the following list of textbooks, including some of the recent books of both types, were selected for special examination:

Book I. *Problems in American Democracy*, T. R. Williamson, D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. 1922.

Book II. *Problems of American Democracy*, H. R. Burch and H. S. Patterson, Macmillan Co., New York. 1922.

Book III. *Problems of American Democracy*, R. O. Hughes, D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. 1923.

Book IV. *Social Civics*, W. B. Munro and C. E. Ozanne, Macmillan Co., New York. 1922.

Book V. *The New Civics*, R. L. Ashley, Macmillan Co., New York. 1917.

Book VI. *Form and Functions of American Government*. T. H. Reed, World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson. 1923.

Book VII. *The American Democracy*, S. E. Forman, Century Co., New York. 1921.

Book VIII. *Government and Politics in the United States*, W. B. Gitteau, Houghton Mifflin and Co., Boston, 1920.

Book IX. *American Government in 1923*, F. A. Magruder, Allyn and Bacon, Boston. 1921.

Analysis of Subject Matter. It was necessary at the outset of this analysis of subject matter to prepare a rather comprehensive list of heads or topics for the classification of material, such as would lend itself readily to the inclusion of a great variety of subjects treated in these nine civics texts. Finally it was decided that the outline headings of a course of study or general outline for a civics course in the senior high school, prepared by a special committee of and reported to the American Political Science Association in 1921, and referred to above, would admirably serve the purpose, as it appeared sufficiently inclusive and detailed to permit the easy classification of the material of all of the texts. Except for some slight adaptations, the major, minor and sub-heads of this outline were adopted. The arrangement of topics appears below.

*The Derivation of a Civics Test**A. The American Environment*

1. Human Society
2. United States
3. Peoples, Races, and Racial Problems
4. American Home and Community
5. Economic Factors and Organization

*B. American Government**(a) Foundations of Government*

6. Nature and Forms of Government
7. Citizen, Rights and Duties
8. Popular Control of Government

(b) Electoral Mechanism

9. Suffrage and Elections
10. Party Organization and Machinery

(c) Local and State Governments

11. Counties and Rural Communities
12. City Government
13. Municipal Problems
14. State Government
15. Legislature
16. Governor
17. Courts and Law

(d) National Government

18. National Constitution
19. Congress
20. President and Cabinet
21. Courts and Law

*C. Functions of Government**(a) Economic*

22. National Resources, Conservation and Public Domain
23. Agricultural Interests
24. Encouragement and Regulation of Commerce
25. Industry and Labor
26. Currency, Banking and Credit
27. Public Utilities
28. Public Finance

(b) Social

29. Public Health
30. Poor Relief, Correction and other Welfare Problems
31. Education

(c) International

32. National Defense
33. Foreign Relations
34. United States as a World Power
35. League of Nations
36. World Problems and Democracy

These nine texts were carefully examined and the number of pages devoted to each topic was noted. The number of pages of actual subject matter contained in each book was estimated after due allowance had been made for the number of pages devoted to illustrations, photographs, study helps, questions, references, and problems. In some cases it was exceedingly difficult to classify material of the several texts because of its peculiar organization. Occasionally the authors adopted a rather general heading and proceeded to develop chapters which actually included one or more topics as they appear in the classification plan. In such cases the number of pages devoted to each topic was estimated and noted under the proper headings. Portions of pages over and above whole numbers were not considered. Questions arising as to what material to include under each head or topic were determined by reference to the complete outline reproduced in full later in the dissertation. The total number of pages devoted to each topic was finally determined and tabulated. See Table I.

After the textbook analysis by pages was completed, the percentage of pages devoted to each topic in the respective texts was figured on the basis of the total number of pages of actual subject matter, not counting illustrations, questions, problems, etc., contained in each text. These percentages also appear on Table I below the number of pages in the texts devoted to each topic. The total number of pages of each book, and the total number of pages of actual subject matter, not including the Appendix, have been recorded on the same table.

TABLE I.—SHOWS THE NUMBER OF PAGES AND THE PERCENTAGE OF PAGES IN EACH OF NINE REPRESENTATIVE CIVICS TEXTBOOKS DEVOTED TO THE VARIOUS TOPICS OF GOVERNMENT

Topics	BOOKS								
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX
1		39 8.04		15 2.68	21 6.58				
2		9 1.85	15 3.17		9 2.82	11 2.50	9 2.79	15 3.71	8 2.72
3	18 4.73	70 14.43	24 5.08	16 2.86	8 2.50	9 2.04	6 1.86		
4	11 2.86	21 4.30	27 5.72		27 8.46				
5	39 10.23	30 6.18	47 9.95	21 3.76	4 1.25	11 2.50	8 2.48	11 2.72	
6	19 4.98	18 3.71	27 5.72	13 2.32		15 3.40	15 4.65	12 2.96	19 6.46
7	8 2.09	2 .41		13 2.32	25 7.83		5 1.55		7 2.38
8	16 4.19	9 1.85	14 2.96	21 3.76		12 2.72	6 1.86	1 .24	
9	10 2.62	5 1.03	5 1.05	24 4.30	15 4.70	10 2.27	9 2.79	16 3.96	23 7.82
10	10 2.62	2 .41	6 1.27	18 3.22	16 5.01	24 5.46	11 3.41	8 1.98	11 3.74
11	16 4.19	1 .20	10 2.11	13 2.32	5 1.56	18 4.09	26 8.07	20 4.95	22 7.48
12	8 2.09	5 1.03	13 2.75	18 3.22	7 2.19	22 5.00	9 2.79	30 7.42	11 3.74
13		7 1.44		20 3.58	10 3.13	11 2.50	9 2.79		6 2.04
14	9 2.35	3 .61		14 2.50	13 4.07	10 2.27	6 1.86	27 6.68	19 6.46
15	6 1.57		15 3.17	1 .17	4 1.25	25 5.68	6 1.86	10 2.47	11 3.74
16	6 1.57		17 3.60	1 .17	2 .62	8 1.81	8 2.48	8 1.98	8 2.72
17	6 1.57		20 4.23	1 .17	1 .31	15 3.40	7 2.17	12 2.96	8 2.72
18	10 2.62	10 2.06		17 3.04	15 4.70	34 7.73	24 7.45	35 8.66	19 6.46
19	13 3.41	3 .61		17 3.04	10 3.13	23 5.22	16 4.96	40 9.90	24 8.16
20	16 4.19	1 .20		17 3.04	10 3.13	39 8.86	12 3.72	37 9.14	53 18.02

TABLE I.—Continued

Topics	BOOKS								
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX
21	9 2.35	17 3.50		15 2.68	8 2.50	6 1.36	20 6.21	11 2.72	10 3.40
22	9 2.35	11 2.26	16 3.38	10 1.79	8 2.50	9 2.04	7 2.17		
23		1 .20		14 2.50	4 1.25				
24	8 2.09	23 4.74	18 3.81	22 3.94	15 4.70	6 1.36	13 4.03	16 3.96	5 1.70
25	42 11.02	67 13.81	47 9.95	33 5.91	17 5.32	11 2.50	16 4.96		
26	10 2.62	10 2.06	24 5.08	24 4.30	8 2.50	16 3.63	12 3.72	17 4.20	
27				15 2.68	7 2.19	11 2.50			
28	24 6.27	24 4.94	18 3.81	20 3.58	16 5.01	28 6.36	25 7.76	30 7.42	14 4.76
29	10 2.62	1 .20	20 4.23	22 3.94	5 1.56	9 2.04	5 1.55		2 .68
30	20 5.24	67 13.81	21 4.44	20 3.58	10 3.13	26 5.90	12 3.72	15 3.71	2 .68
31	9 2.35	14 2.88	40 8.47	18 3.22	7 2.19	10 2.27	6 1.86	13 3.21	12 4.08
32				21 3.76	8 2.50	9 2.04	6 1.86	10 2.47	
33		1 .20	17 3.60	16 2.86	4 1.25	3 .68	7 2.17	10 2.47	
34		2 .41	5 1.05	15 2.68					
35			6 1.27	17 3.04			1 .31		
36	19 4.98	12 2.47		16 2.86					
*	381	485	472	558	319	440	322	404	294
**	524	575	616	664	381	498	434	473	427

Key:

* Pages of subject matter in texts.

** Total number of pages in texts.

Note: The whole numbers designate pages and the others percentages. Numbers of topics in the above table refer to topics with corresponding numbers in the classification outline. Roman numerals refer to textbooks listed on p. 61.

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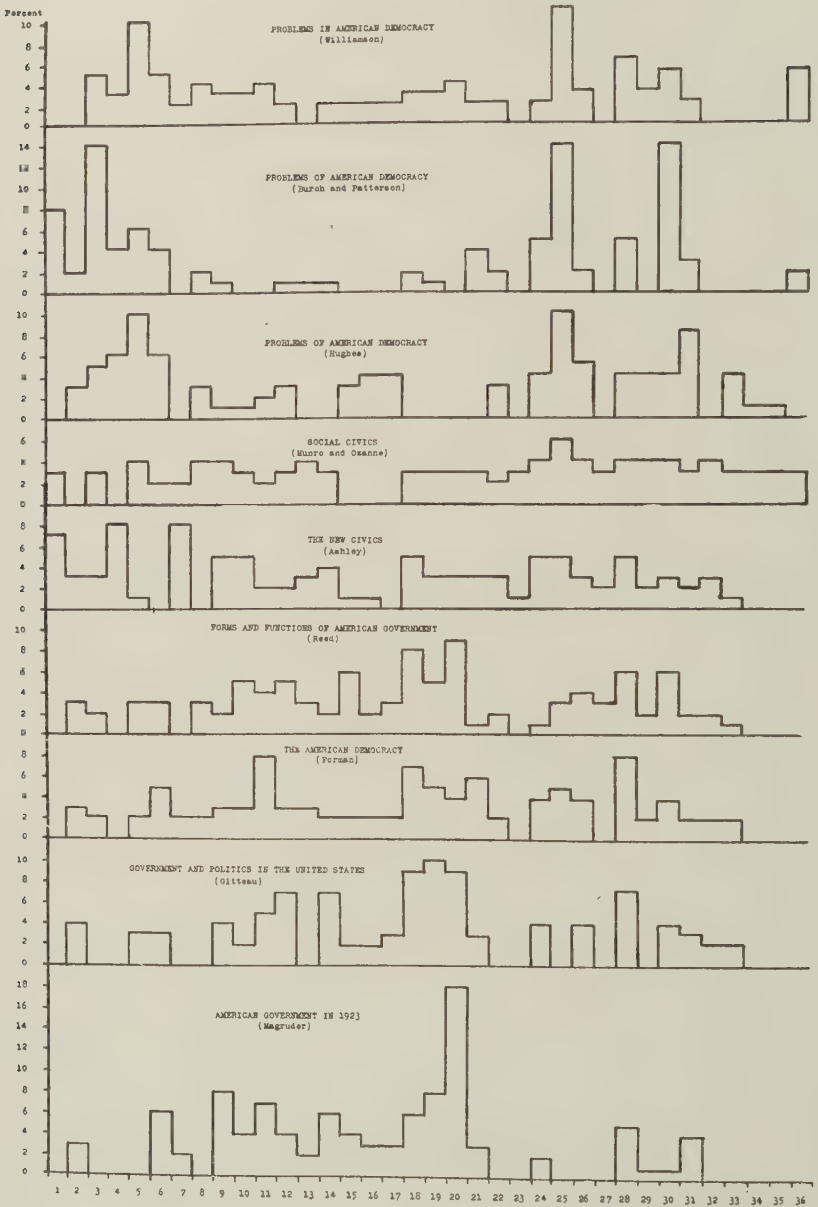


Fig. 1. The Percentage of Pages of Actual Subject Matter in Nine Representative Civics Textbooks Devoted to the Various Topics of Government.

Note: The numbers on the base line refer to topics with corresponding numbers in the classification outline.

In order to get a clearer idea of the range and emphasis of topics treated in these various textbooks, it is necessary to present the percentages of pages in graphic form. See Fig. 1. Percentages are arranged on the vertical axis. The numbers on the base line refer to the topics with their corresponding numbers as listed above in the classification outline. There are numerous cases in which authors have devoted but a portion of a page to a discussion of a topic and the percentage is so small as not to be entered on the graph. It must not be concluded from a study of the graph that those texts not credited with even one per cent under any given topic have failed to give any attention whatsoever to the development of the particular heading for such an idea would be slightly misleading. The fact is, practically all of the books examined have covered virtually the same field although in the cases of some topics there has been a tendency to combine headings and to dismiss further elaboration by launching into a general discussion of them.

The range of material of the various texts may be easily understood from the diagrammatic presentation, Fig. 1, but this advantage is not shared in the case of emphasis or the stress laid by authors on the respective divisions and topics treated in these textbooks in civics. Perhaps, the most that can be said is that Fig. 1 shows the general tendencies of the two types of books rather than the general tendencies of the nine texts considered as a single volume. There seems to be a marked advantage in this method of textbook analysis in approaching the problem of determining the content of civics and what is the most important material to be considered at length in a balanced civics course. The consensus of opinion of authors of modern civics textbooks in use in the schools is certainly more nearly the measure of practice among authors than the setting up of a standard by the examination of a single volume. In order to arrive at an understanding of the general tendency of authors to stress various divisions of government and minor headings falling within their limits, it was necessary to prepare a summarized table of percentages, combining under a few large headings the total of the percentages distributed among the smaller topics and divisions. Table II shows clearly the method of procedure in combining the percentages under certain major captions. Finally, after the respective col-

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TABLE II.—THE PERCENTAGE OF PAGES IN EACH OF NINE REPRESENTATIVE CIVICS TEXTBOOKS DEVOTED TO THE MAJOR TOPICS OF GOVERNMENT AND THE AVERAGE OF THE PERCENTAGES OF PAGES SHOWING THE GENERAL TENDENCY OF THE AUTHORS TO EMPHASIZE CERTAIN PORTIONS OF CIVICS SUBJECT MATTER

Texts:	A	B				C		
		(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(a)	(b)	(c)
Book I	17.82	11.26	5.24	13.34	12.57	24.35	10.21	4.98
Book II	34.80	5.97	1.44	3.28	6.37	28.01	16.89	3.08
Book III	23.92	8.68	2.32	15.86		26.03	17.14	5.92
Book IV	9.30	8.40	7.52	12.13	11.80	24.70	10.74	15.20
Book V	21.61	7.83	9.71	13.13	13.46	23.47	6.88	3.75
Book VI	7.04	6.12	7.72	24.75	23.17	18.39	10.21	2.72
Book VII	7.13	8.06	6.20	22.02	22.34	22.64	7.13	4.34
Book VIII	6.43	3.20	5.94	26.46	30.42	15.58	6.92	4.94
Book IX	2.72	8.84	11.56	28.90	36.04	6.46	5.44	
Total	130.77	68.36	57.65	159.87	156.17	189.63	91.56	44.93
Average	14.53	49.11				36.23		

Key:

A—AMERICAN ENVIRONMENT

B—AMERICAN GOVERNMENT

(a) Foundations of Government

(b) Electoral Mechanism

(c) Local and State Governments

(d) National Government

C—FUNCTIONS OF GOVERNMENT

(a) Economic

(b) Social

(c) International

umns were totaled the average was struck so that the basis would remain the same as in the first table. It sometimes proves slightly difficult to make a comparison of percentages to arrive at specific and definite conclusions, and for this reason the averages of the composite table have been graphically presented. See Fig. 2.

According to Table II, approximately 15 per cent of the total percentages falls under the first large classification division, *The American Environment*. Out of a total of approximately 49 per cent, assigned to the second division of the classification outline, *American Government*, the minor divisions or topics make their respective claims: Foundations of Government, 8 per cent; Electoral Mechanism, 6 per cent; Local and State Governments, 18

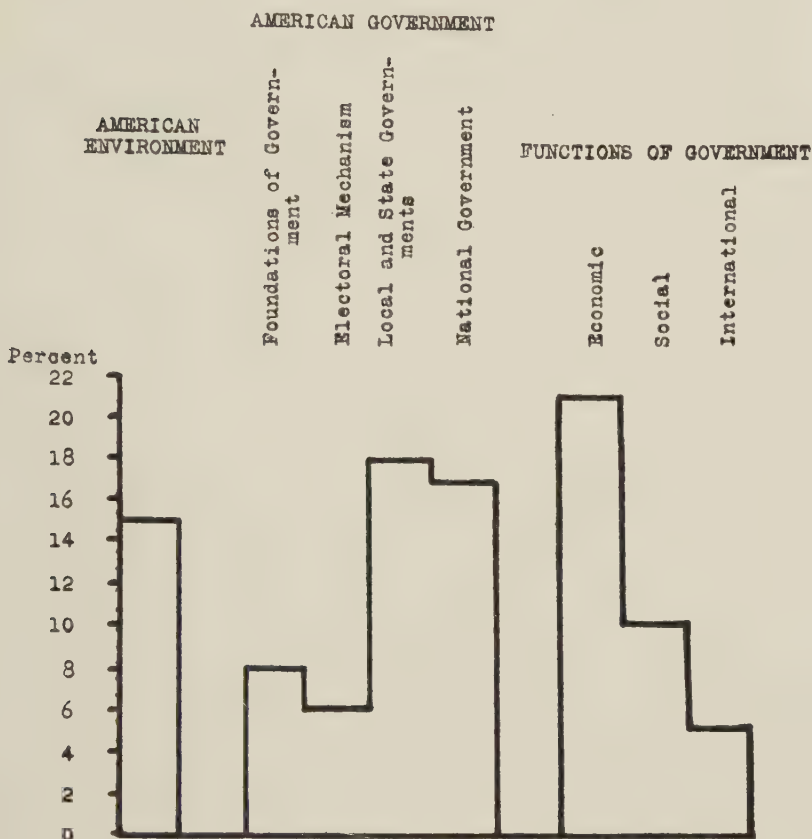


Fig. 2. Average Percentage of Pages of Actual Subject Matter in Nine Representative Civics Textbooks Devoted to the Major Topics of Government

per cent; and National Government, 17 per cent. *The Functions of Government*, the third major division, with an assigned total of 36 per cent, shows the following distribution of percentages among the minor captions: Economic aspects, 21 per cent; Social aspects, 10 per cent; and the International aspects, 5 per cent.

As a result of this study and analysis of civics texts, it is safe to conclude that the highest type of civics courses should afford emphasis of the large divisions or major topics, used in the above classification of material, in accordance with the total percentages

assigned to them. The same procedure should apply to the minor divisions of the general outline.

The following facts are evident from the analysis of these books: practically all of the books embrace a variety and a wide range of topics; the social, economic, and political aspects of government are treated in most books according to the standards set by educators and curriculum makers who have urged a balancing of materials; there is a tendency to lay considerable emphasis on international problems; the functions as well as the forms of government are stressed in most of the books; much attention is given to pointing out the specific duties and responsibilities of citizenship, and there seems to be a growing tendency among authors to provide opportunities for applying the principles of government in school projects.

CHAPTER FIVE

GENERAL OUTLINE FOR A COURSE IN CIVICS

Numerous attempts have been made from time to time to prepare a satisfactory outline for a course in advanced civics suitable for use in the senior high school, but most of them have not proved wholly satisfactory for one of two reasons; either the study of civics has been limited to a comparatively small field of topics, or has been made so comprehensive as to embrace the whole field of the social sciences. These are the general criticisms that have been made of the various outlines presented for consideration. Obviously, there is something to be said in favor of both points of view, and as a result there is a decided tendency on the part of prominent subject matter specialists to organize the course so that there remains slight cause for objection on the score that the course is too limited in scope or decidedly too comprehensive.

One of the best and most recent outlines to appear is that found in the *American Political Science Review*, Vol. XVI, 1922, pp. 119-124. The American Political Science Association, thinking that there was urgent need of defining the limits and scope of civics, authorized the appointment in 1921 of a committee to make a special report on the subject. The report, previously referred to in this dissertation, was prepared by a group of specialists in the field of civics and closely related subjects and was presented by Professor W. B. Munro, of Harvard University, who acted as chairman of this special committee. The report was passed upon and the signatures of fifty-eight members of the Association were written below as evidence of their hearty approval of the carefully prepared outline of topics for study. The committee did not attempt to state what particular divisions or topics should receive greatest emphasis but rather left this matter to the discretion of the teacher. Further, the report stated that the committee did not include all of the topics to be covered in a civics course but rather tried to describe reasonable limits for the subject. It seems desirable to reproduce here the outline as prepared by the committee.

Part 1—THE AMERICAN ENVIRONMENT

I. Man and Society

Why men organize. The social instinct. The doctrine of evolution as applied to society. Heredity and environment. Individual and social

heredity. The physical and social environment of men. The chief social groups (family, tribe, community, state, etc.). Individual liberty and social control.

II. The United States

Geography as a factor in national life and progress. The chief geographical areas of the United States. The soil. Harbors and waterways. The newer territories. Alaska and the insular possessions. Influences of geographical features upon past development. Geography and the future.

III. The People, Races and Racial Problems of the United States.

The growth of population. How the population is now distributed. The drift to the cities, its causes, extent and results. Principal occupations of the people. Immigration; its history and causes. Nature of the immigration. Present racial distribution. The negro problem. Other racial problems. Assimilation. The effects of immigration, social, economic and political.

IV. The American Home and Community

Importance of the family as a unit. Influence of the home in training for citizenship. Marriage as basis of the family. The divorce problem. The community; what it is. How communities are formed. The needs and functions of the community. The community spirit. The community and the school. How the schools train for citizenship. The relation of good citizenship to community service.

V. Economic Factors and Organization

The economic needs of man. Economic motives. The subject matter of economics. The consumption of wealth. Production. The factors in production. Land and natural resources. Rent. Labor. The division of labor. Is labor a commodity? Wages. How rates of wages are determined. Capital and interest on capital. The forms of economic organization. Partnerships and corporations. Profits. Government as a factor in production. The distribution of wealth. Transportation as a factor in distribution. Exchange, value and price. Competition and monopolies. Natural monopolies. Freedom of contract. The institution of private property.

Part II—AMERICAN GOVERNMENT

(a) *The Foundations of Government*

VI. The Nature and Forms of Government

Definition of a state. Definition of government. The purpose of the state. Origin of the state. Various theories as to its origin. The basis of the state's authority. Classification of states. Relation of the state to the government. The branches of government. The functions of government. Characteristics of American Government. Written constitutions. Separation of powers. Federalism.

VII. The Citizen; His Rights and Duties

Who are citizens? How citizenship is acquired. Naturalization. The rights of the citizen. Are corporations citizens? Civil liberty; what it means and how it grew. Privileges which are not civic rights. The obligations of citizenship. Hindrances to good citizenship.

VIII. Popular Control of Government

The channels of popular control. Public opinion; its nature and limitations. The election of representatives. The appointment of officials. Election vs. Appointment. Appointments with and without con-

firmation. Partisan appointments. The spoils system. The rise of civil service. Nature of the civil service system. Its value and limitations.

Popular control through direct legislation and the recall. Origin and spread of the initiative and referendum. Direct legislation in practice. Merits and defects of direct legislation. The recall of judicial decisions.

(b) The Electoral Mechanism

IX. Suffrage and Elections

Citizenship and suffrage. Development of the suffrage. Woman suffrage. Present qualifications for voting. Educational tests. Tax-paying requirements. Disqualification. How voters are registered. Nominations. History of nominating methods. The caucus, convention and primary. Election methods. The ballot. The short ballot movement. The preferential ballot. Proportional representation. Corrupt practices at elections. Absent voting. Compulsory voting.

X. Party Organization and Machinery

Why political parties are formed. Nature and functions of political parties. History of American parties. What the leading parties stand for. Party platforms. The minor parties. Economic and social influences on party divisions. Party organization in nation, state and community. The machine. Rings and bosses. Party finance. Practical politics. How parties are financed. The reform of party organization.

(c) Local and State Government

XI. Counties and Rural Communities

Early types of local government. The county; its legal status, organization and officials. Duties of county officials. The reform of county government. City and county consolidation. The county manager plan. The New England town; its organization and the functions of its officials. The township. County districts. Incorporated communities. Problems of local government.

XII. City Government

Growth of cities. Relation of cities to states. Municipal home rule. Different types of city charter. The mayor. The heads of city departments. Municipal officials and employees. Civil service in cities. The city council. Boards and commissions in cities. The reconstruction of city government. The commission plan. Its extension, nature, merits and defects. The city manager. Other recent changes in city government.

XIII. Municipal Problems of Today

City planning. Streets and public works. The protection of life and property. Parks and recreations. The city's share in public health and welfare problems. Congestion of population and its relief. New sources of revenue for cities. Other municipal problems.

XIV. State Government

The early state constitutions. How state constitutions are made. General powers residing in the states. The governor. Officials of state administration. The state legislature. Legislative procedure. The states as agents of the nation. Relations between the states. Full faith and credit. Extradition. Limitations upon the states. The reconstruction of state government.

(d) *National Government*

XV. The National Constitution

American Government before and during the Revolution. The earlier attempts at union. The Confederation; its weakness. Preliminaries of the constitution. Personell of the convention. The convention's work. The compromises. General character of the Constitution. Methods by which it was adopted. Growth of the Constitution by amendment, interpretation and usage.

XVI. Congress at Work

Organization of Congress. Merits and defects of the bicameral system. The Senate; its organization. Its special powers. Confirmation of appointments. Ratification of treaties. Impeachments. Its concurrent powers. Its influence. The House of Representatives. Method of election. Procedure. The Speaker. The committee system. Powers of the House. Relation between the Houses. The general powers of Congress. Congressional finance.

XVII. The President and His Cabinet

Nature of the presidential office. Method of nomination. The college of electors. Why great and striking men are not always chosen. The President's power. Appointments. The veto power. Other prerogatives. Relation of President to Congress. The President's relation to his party. The cabinet and the administration.

XVIII. The Courts and the Law

Judicial organization in outline. The Supreme Court. The subordinate courts. Jurisdiction of the federal tribunals. State courts. The common law. Statutory law. Equity. The jury system. Constitutional limitations relating to the administration of justice. Due process of law. The unconstitutionality of laws. The law's delays. Reforms in judicial administration.

Part III—THE CIVIC ACTIVITIES

(a) *Economic*

XIX. National Resources, Conservation, and the Public Domain

The chief national resources; their value and the danger of exhausting them. Conservation. The forest policy of the United States. National reservations. History of the public lands. Sales of land and the homestead system.

XX. The Agricultural Interests

Importance of agriculture. Chief types of agriculture in the United States. Agriculture and the law of diminishing returns. Exhaustion of the soil and the prevention. Relation of agriculture to transportation. The problem of agricultural credit. The federal farm loan banking system. Agriculture and the labor problem. The work of the department of agriculture. The state agricultural authorities. Experimental farms. The county life commission.

XXI. The Encouragement and Regulation of Commerce

Purposes of commerce. Local, interstate and foreign commerce. How commerce is regulated. The interstate commerce commission and its work. Railroads and the Sherman Act. The railroads in war time. The Transportation Act of 1920. The future of railroads. Foreign commerce; its scope and value. Government aid to shipping. The shipping laws. The merchant marine; its history. The consular service. International commerce and international exchange. Foreign commerce and the tariff. The tariff policy of the United States.

XXII. Industry and Labor

Modern industrial organization. Corporations. Combinations in industry. The control of industrial combinations. The federal trade commission. The general relations of government to industry. Labor's part in the industrial order. History of labor organizations. The American Federation of Labor; its organization and program. Methods and policies of labor. Collective bargaining. The right to strike. The closed shop and the open shop. Conciliation and arbitration. Compulsory arbitration. Industrial accidents and employers' liability. Child labor laws. Minimum wage laws. The problem of unemployment.

XXIII. Currency, Banking and Credit

Money and its origin. The functions of money. The coinage of the United States. The double and single standard. Paper money. Legal tender. The functions of banks. National banking system. Federal reserve banks. Some practical operations of banking. The relation of credit to money. Credit and prices. Workings of the credit system.

XXIV. Public Utilities

Nature of public utilities. The need of public control. Franchises. Methods of public utility regulation. Public service commissions; their organization and powers. Public ownership; its merits and defects. American and foreign experience in public ownership. Public utility problems at the present day.

XXV. Public Finance

The cost of government. Taxation, its forms and incidence. Leading principles of taxation. Local taxes. State taxes. National taxes. Economic and social purposes of taxation. The division of taxing power between the national and state governments. Suggested reforms in taxation. Government expenditures. How appropriations are made. The new national budget system. Public debts. Methods of public borrowing. Debt limits. How public debts are repaid.

(b) Social

XXVI. Public Health

The chief problems of health protection. Quarantine. The prevention of epidemics. Vital statistics, their nature and use. Some instances of progress in preventive medicine. Public sanitation. Public water supplies. Milk inspection. The inspection of food and drugs. Housing regulations. The work of local health boards. State health organization. The United States Public Health Service.

XXVII. Poor Relief, Correction and Other Welfare Problems

The problem of poverty. Old and new methods of dealing with it. The causes of poverty. Its prevention. Social insurance. Crime and its causes. Crime prevention. Prisons and prison reform. The care of mental defectives. Social amelioration and reform.

XXVIII. Education

The public school system. State and local school authorities. State control of education. Educational work of the national government. School finance. The newer demands in education. Vocational education and vocational guidance. The Gary system. Wider use of the school plant. Americanization.

(c) International

XXIX. National Defense

Defense as a function of government. Militarism. The cause of war. The prevention of war. Preparedness. The regular army. The

national guard. The national army during the World War. America's part in the War. Universal military service. The navy. The problem of disarmament.

XXX. Foreign Relations

The nature of international law. The control of foreign relations. The diplomatic service. Secret and open diplomacy. Treaties. Extraterritoriality. Outstanding features of American foreign policy. The Monroe Doctrine. American contributions to international law. The War and international relations.

XXXI. The United States as a World Power

Traditional foreign policy. Why isolation is no longer possible. Relations with other American states. Relations with Europe. American interests in the Far East. Interests acquired during the War. Pending questions of foreign policy. The loans to European powers. Mandates and special privileges. Other diplomatic problems.

XXXII. The League of Nations

The idea of a league of nations in history. Purposes of Versailles covenant. Its chief provisions. America's objections to League. The League as a scheme of government. The League at work. What it has accomplished. The position of the United States in the new world order.

XXXIII. World Problems and Democracy

Results of War on political, social and economic organization. The growth of radicalism. The soviet system. Plans for socialistic commonwealths. Direct action. The reconstruction of government by constitutional means. Can democracy solve problems of today? American contributions to democracy in the past. The ideals of democracy. What America can contribute in the future.

CHAPTER SIX

PREPARATION OF THE CIVICS TEST

So far as is known nothing has been done in the field of civics in the junior or senior high school to measure in a definite fashion the results of this instruction. Educational tests have been prepared for the evaluation of a pupil's mastery of other subjects offered in the secondary school, but as yet no attempts have been made to prepare a test that would serve as a measuring device in ascertaining the pupil's mastery of civics subject matter. This chapter of the dissertation has been devoted to a description of such a test.

Each of the previous chapters has been invaluable in giving direction to the work of preparing the civics test. The relation which these preliminary researches bear to the problem of building a measuring instrument has been clearly indicated below under appropriate headings. The inclusion of all material has been justified on the basis of the findings of these important studies. Scientific procedure has been strictly adhered to throughout the construction of this test.

THE TEST

This examination in civics has been divided into three parts and will be discussed somewhat in detail. The complete test in two printed forms will be found in the Appendix.

TEST I. CIVIC VOCABULARY

Civics, like other school subjects, has a special vocabulary. It is quite necessary that a pupil know the meaning of the words constituting this special vocabulary, as ability to understand the subject matter of the text is largely dependent upon this knowledge. For this reason a vocabulary test has been prepared and included in this examination.

Purpose. The purpose of this test is to ascertain how well the pupil has mastered the special vocabulary of civics.

Selection of Material. The nine representative civics textbooks previously referred to were carefully checked over to secure a list of words which seemed essential to an understanding of civics. Words which were common to other subjects but not espe-

cially significant in the understanding of civics were excluded from the list. Forty words were finally selected to constitute the vocabulary test. No words were included in the test which did not appear in at least five of the nine volumes.

Arrangement of Material. Most of the words in the list have been arranged in no particular order, except an attempt has been made to place early in the list words which were judged to be more or less familiar to the pupil.

Form of Test. The "multiple choice" form of test has been adopted in this inquiry into the pupil's mastery of the civic vocabulary. The word to be defined is presented to the pupil, together with four possible choices of words or groups of words which may express what he believes to be the most exact definition of the word as used in civics. Only one word or group of words inclosed in parentheses is the correct answer and any other word or group of words selected by the pupil as a proper definition for a term listed in the vocabulary is considered incorrect. Practically all of the words listed as possible responses have been chosen because of their significance and relation to the words to be defined. Throughout the preparation of this part of the test an effort was made to secure words or groups of words for possible answers which were less difficult than the term to be defined. This test demands good judgment on the part of the pupil and a ready knowledge of the civic vocabulary.

TEST II. CIVIC INFORMATION

The courses in civics offered in the senior high school should among other things supply the pupil with knowledge of governmental agencies which promote the public welfare. They should also seek to show the relation of government to the individual and to the group, whether it be city, county, state or nation. Pupils should be impressed with the great service which government renders and the possibilities and methods of making government infinitely more efficient and serviceable. These courses should look toward giving pupils correct ideas of government, its form, functions, and problems. And finally they should seek to encourage proper attitudes toward government, the formation of desirable habits and high ideals of citizenship.

Purpose. The purpose of this test is to see how well the pupil has mastered the subject matter of civics.

Selection of Material. The material of this test on Civic Information was selected on the basis of the general tendency among authors of civics textbooks to discuss a wide variety of topics and to emphasize and treat at some length certain divisions of government. The averages struck in Table II (above) were adopted as the basis of distribution of questions on civics subject matter. The textbooks previously referred to were read carefully and a list of questions was prepared which covered the material of importance. Finally eighty questions common to at least five of the nine textbooks were chosen to constitute the test in Civic Information. Questions on the form, functions, and the problems of government have been emphasized in conformance with the standards referred to above.

Arrangement of Material. The attempt has been made in this test to arrange the material so that questions on local, state, and national government and other material of civics would be quite independent. National questions of information have been distributed among questions of county, state and nation so that there is no regularity of order or sequence whatsoever and the answer to one question does not give a hint of the answer to the next question. Most of the material of the test is such as the pupil would come into contact with in his everyday life—by the reading of newspapers or in conversation with those about him.

Form of Test. The "yes and no" form of test has been adopted in this section of the examination to facilitate the taking and scoring of the test and to cover in a few minutes a wide range of subject matter.

TEST III. CIVIC THINKING

One of the aims set up in a previous chapter concerned itself with the stimulation and encouragement of civic thinking. A citizen is continually confronted with situations which demand a decision or a judgment. He is obliged to rely upon his fund of civic information and experience in making up his mind concerning what is the proper and wise thing to do. At least this is what the good citizen should practice and make habitual. Knowledge is the necessary material of the highest type of civic thinking. It would seem then that a civics test should attempt to measure the results of classroom instruction in respect to the development of ability

to apply knowledge of fundamental principles to situations which are comparable to those in real life.

This test contains a variety of material and is divided into two parts.

Part I

It is essential in citizenship training that pupils should be instructed in the use of the ballot and the selection of the best candidates for office. If the ballot is to be used efficiently and wisely by the individual citizen, specific instruction should be afforded in this practical field of citizenship training.

Purpose. The purpose of this test is to measure the ability of pupils to select candidates for office.

Selection of Material. It is impossible to include more than one problem in this part of the test because of the time limit of the examination. In order that the situation may seem closely related to the life of the pupil the question of which of two candidates should be selected as mayor of a city has been chosen for this exercise. Also it was thought that this test should involve the general principles which should be operative in the selection of candidates for offices of the other units of government.

Arrangement of Material. The material used in the test was arranged so that the pupil could make a comparison in a short time of those qualities and characteristics possessed by both candidates.

Form of Test. This form of test may be called the "checking" test. A short descriptive paragraph introduces the situation or problem of selecting one of two candidates for office. The pupil is instructed to read carefully the qualities and characteristics of these candidates, decide on one of them, and indicate his choice by making an X in the square following the name of the candidate placed at the head of the list of qualities and characteristics.

After the pupil has selected the candidate whom he believes to be best qualified for the office of mayor, he is asked to make a check mark (✓) before the qualities or characteristics which determined his choice. This affords the examiner or teacher an opportunity of understanding why one candidate was selected rather than the other and also gives the pupil a chance to show what attitudes, ideals or standards are operating to determine his selection of candidates.

Part II

This section of the test is an attempt to present certain problems which demand a solution or an answer. The pupil must rely upon what he has learned in civics to make correct answers. Most of these situations are comparable to those which arise in the experience of the citizen during his life.

Purpose. The purpose of this test is to measure the ability of the pupil to do civic thinking.

Selection of Material. The material of this test was suggested by the texts examined. Certain principles were developed which were of great importance to a complete understanding of the methods and functions of government. This material was carefully selected so that the situations would involve knowledge of general affairs rather than of specific regional or sectional practices. Eight problems have been chosen from a list of proposed problems on what government does for the people and how it functions. Problems of national as well as local government are presented.

Arrangement of Material. The introductory exercises of this part of the test are concerned with situations with which the pupil is more or less familiar, and the correct answers are based upon elementary and fundamental principles of government. Then follow problems involving a knowledge of the methods and function of the other units of government.

Form of Test. The "multiple choice" form of test has been used in this section of the examination. A problem is stated and below it are presented five possible answers one of which the pupil must choose. The pupil makes his choice of answers by drawing a circle around the number which corresponds with the answer which he believes to be correct. The pupil is obliged to do some very clear thinking in selecting the important points which describe the situation and in determining the best in the list of five possible and controlled replies. This test, then, aims to place a premium upon the highest type of thinking in civic situations.

Construction of Alternate Forms. Two forms of equal difficulty of this test have been prepared according to recognized principles of test construction.

The experimental work on Form A during which time three revisions were made occupied a year and a half. The first mimeo-

graphed form of the examination was administered to approximately 2000 pupils who had just finished a course in civics in the junior or senior high school. On the basis of this use the general character of the test was determined. Necessary refinements were made in the first printed edition of the test. The test was again administered to 2000 pupils at the end of a course in civics. A thorough revision was made at this time and the test was again used with about 1000 pupils. After certain minor changes had been made it appeared in its present form.

About two more years of experimental work was devoted to the development and refinement of an equivalent form of this test. Before the actual preparation of the manuscript was undertaken a complete study was again made of the instructional materials of courses in civics. Ten additional exercises for each part of Form B were prepared in order to facilitate the work of providing a second form of the test. Both forms of the examination were given on succeeding days to approximately 2000 pupils, half of this group took Form A on the first day and Form B on the second while the other half took Form B on the first day and Form A on the second in order to equalize testing conditions for the two forms. After the difficulty of each exercise had been determined by counting the number of incorrect responses which were made to each one a complete tabulation was prepared to show the difficulty of each item. Then exercises in Form B were paired according to difficulty with exercises in Form A. When the required number of exercises had been selected to complete the new form the remaining exercises were discarded. After further use with 500 pupils the revised edition of Form B was published in the present printed form.

All of the reading matter of the test is easily within the range of the abilities of the pupils for whom the test is designed. Great care has been exercised in the preparation and the revisions of the exercises to avoid the inclusion of material which presents reading difficulties. A careful study was made of this point by co-operating teachers who reported that pupils taking the test experience no difficulty in comprehending the meaning of the exercises.

Very valuable assistance was afforded by the thirty teachers who co-operated in the preparation of this test. These teachers

of civics personally administered all of the tests and were directly responsible for proper handling in the schools. They passed judgment on whether the subject matter of the test conformed to the standards of their own courses of study and offered many helpful suggestions concerning possibilities of improvement of various exercises in the test. Fortunately most of these persons were well trained in the field of measurement and therefore rendered an invaluable service in this task.

CHAPTER SEVEN

STATISTICAL DATA AND ITS TREATMENT BEARING UPON SCORING, RELIABILITY, AND VALIDITY OF THE CIVICS TEST

The test in its first edition was submitted to the junior and senior high school pupils who were completing a course in civics in the following schools of Michigan: Flint High School, Flint; Ann Arbor High School, Ann Arbor; Howell High School, Howell; Arthur Hill High School, Saginaw; Central High School and Normal High School, Ypsilanti. Reports from other schools where this test was used were not available until after this statistical study had been completed and therefore could not be included in it. Recent checking of these tests has disclosed the fact that the results in these schools are substantially the same as in those for which the data is presented. Five hundred and nineteen pupils took the tests in the schools reporting.

All of these tests were returned without being corrected. Experienced scorers corrected the examinations and made all the tabulations in this study. To insure accuracy every test booklet was re-checked by one or more persons.

Scoring the Test. Various statistical methods may be applied in the development of a satisfactory scheme for scoring educational tests. Following is a brief statement of the method utilized for this test.

After the incorrect answers to the exercises had been properly indicated, computations and tabulations were made of the number of correct responses to each of the three parts of the test. A summarization of the results is presented in Tables III, IV, and V. These raw scores furnished the working basis for the development of a simple scoring system as well as for further statistical study of the test.

Since it is not only desirable but necessary to give pupils a rating on a test in terms of a single score there arose the problem of how to equate the scores made on the three parts of the test. The value of an exercise correctly answered in one part of the test as compared with the value of an exercise correctly answered in another part of the test was determined by two methods: first, by weighting the raw scores according to the ratio (R) of the interquartile range of the scores on one part of the test to the other

TABLE III.—NUMBER OF EXERCISES CORRECTLY MARKED IN TEST I.

Number of Exercises	SCHOOLS						Number Tested
	A	B	C	D	E	F	
39-41							
36-38	5	2	5	10	2	7	31
33-35	4	6	19	21	19	25	94
30-32	6	8	29	27	19	36	125
27-29	6	9	16	23	34	23	111
24-26	7	13	11	11	18	16	76
21-23	4	12	6	4	6	15	47
18-20	1	9	4		7	4	25
15-17	1		1		4	1	7
12-14						1	1
9-11		1	1				2
Total	34	60	92	96	109	128	519
1st Q	25.0	22.2	27.0	28.2	25.7	26.1	25.9
Median	29.0	25.8	30.7	31.1	28.8	30.3	29.7
3rd Q	32.8	30.3	33.2	34.0	31.9	33.0	32.9

TABLE IV.—NUMBER OF EXERCISES CORRECTLY MARKED IN TEST II.

Number of Exercises	SCHOOLS						Number Tested
	A	B	C	D	E	F	
78-80		1	1			1	3
75-77	1	5	6	7	10	15	44
72-74	4	10	10	29	19	20	92
69-71	5	14	20	18	29	29	115
66-68	6	6	22	24	20	26	104
63-65	7	16	15	10	16	19	83
60-62	5	1	5	6	6	6	29
57-59	3	4	9	1	6	9	32
54-56	2	2	3		1	1	9
51-53		1			2	2	5
48-50			1	1			2
45-47	1						1
Total	34	60	92	96	109	128	519
1st Q	61.5	64.3	64.0	66.8	65.3	65.2	64.9
Median	65.6	69.0	67.8	70.0	69.4	69.1	68.8
3rd Q	69.3	72.3	71.1	73.2	72.3	72.6	72.3

TABLE V.—NUMBER OF EXERCISES CORRECTLY MARKED IN TEST III.

Number of Exercises	SCHOOLS						Number Tested
	A	B	C	D	E	F	
9	1	3	9	9	5	16	43
8	5	7	25	16	19	25	97
7	4	13	19	18	28	38	120
6	11	14	13	26	26	22	112
5	6	11	10	16	9	12	64
4	4	8	7	11	14	7	51
3	3	3	6		6	4	22
2		1	3		2	3	9
1						1	1
Total	34	60	92	96	109	128	519
1st Q	5.3	5.2	4.6	5.8	5.6	6.2	5.7
Median	6.4	6.5	7.4	6.8	6.9	7.4	7.0
3rd Q	7.1	7.5	8.4	8.0	7.9	8.4	8.1

parts of the test; second, by weighting the raw scores according to the ratio (R) of the standard deviation of the scores on one part of the test to the other parts of the test. Tables VI and VII present these ratios.

TABLE VI.—RATIO OF THE INTERQUARTILE RANGE ON TEST II TO THOSE ON TESTS I AND III

Test	SCHOOLS													
	A (R)		B (R)		C (R)		D (R)		E (R)		F (R)		All (R)	
I	7.8	1.0	8.1	1.9	6.2	1.1	5.8	1.1	6.2	1.1	6.9	1.0	41.0	1.0
II	7.8	1.0	8.0	1.0	7.1	1.0	6.4	1.0	7.0	1.0	7.4	1.0	43.7	1.0
III	1.8	4.3	2.3	3.4	3.8	1.8	2.2	2.9	2.3	3.0	2.2	3.3	14.6	3.0

TABLE VII.—RATIO OF THE STANDARD DEVIATION ON TEST II TO THOSE ON TESTS I AND III

Test	SCHOOLS													
	A (R)		B (R)		C (R)		D (R)		E (R)		F (R)		All (R)	
I	5.2	1.2	5.4	1.0	5.0	1.2	3.7	1.2	4.7	1.9	4.9	1.1	4.9	1.1
II	6.1	1.0	5.6	1.0	5.8	1.0	4.5	1.0	4.5	1.0	5.4	1.0	5.3	1.0
III	1.5	4.1	1.6	3.5	1.9	3.1	1.5	3.3	1.6	2.8	1.7	3.2	1.9	2.8

The ratio in each case is approximately 1:1:3. Therefore it seems wise to assign values to the exercises in the three parts of the examination on the basis of these ratios. According to this plan each exercise in Tests I and II should be worth one point and each exercise in Test III should be worth three points. Since there are forty exercises in Test I, eighty exercises in Test II, and

nine exercises in Test III one hundred and forty-seven (147) points would be considered a perfect score.

Reliability of the Test. Various methods have been adopted by test makers to determine the reliability of educational tests. For the sake of convenience the method of self-correlation has been used here. Tabulations were made of the raw scores made by the pupils on the odd and even numbered exercises and after two scores were computed for the alternate exercises of the test the coefficients of correlation³⁷ between the two measures were computed for each of the parts of the test and for the test as a whole. On the basis of these coefficients of reliability between the two halves of the test the reliability of the entire test was determined by the application of Brown's formula.³⁸

TABLE VIII.—RELIABILITY AS DETERMINED BY THE APPLICATION OF BROWN'S FORMULA TO THE SCORES OF THE ODD AND EVEN NUMBERED EXERCISES OF THE TEST

Test	r	P. E.
I	.87	.016
II	.82	.012
III	.81	.010
Total	.85	.014

Since the index of reliability, the greatest possible value of the coefficient of reliability, is considered the most useful measure of

³⁷The formula for the coefficient of correlation is:

$$r = \frac{\frac{S_{xy}}{N} - (\bar{cx})(\bar{cy})}{\sqrt{\frac{S_x^2}{N} - (\bar{cx})^2} \sqrt{\frac{S_y^2}{N} - (\bar{cy})^2}}$$

(See McCall, William A., *How to Experiment in Education*, Macmillan Co., New York, 1923, p. 229.)

The formula for the probable error of measurement is:

$$PE_M = .6745 SD_1 \sqrt{1 - r_{12}}$$

(See Monroe, Walter S., *Theory of Educational Measurements*, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1923, p. 214.)

³⁸The formula for the coefficient of reliability is:

$$r_{12} = \frac{2r_h}{1 + r_h}$$

(See Kelly, T. L., "A Simplified Method of Using Scaled Data for Purposes of Testing," *School and Society*, Vol. IV, July 18 and 25, 1916, pp. 34, 71.)

reliability the formula³⁹ for its computation was applied to the coefficient .85 which yielded an index of reliability of .92 for the test as a whole.

Validity of the Test. An attempt has been made to determine the validity of the test in the absence of more reliable and satisfactory criteria by comparing the teachers' grades with the scores made by the pupils on the test. The degree of correspondence of these two measures of the pupils' achievement in civics is shown by the coefficients of correlation in the following table:

TABLE IX.—CORRELATION OF TEACHERS' GRADES WITH TEST SCORES MADE ON VARIOUS PARTS AND ON THE TEST AS A WHOLE

Schools	TEST			
	I	II	III	Total
A	.57	.45	.77	.64
B	.65	.69	.63	.75
C	.85	.65	.58	.74
D	.39	.31	.10	.34
E	.64	.56	.43	.61
F	.42	.49	.34	.50
All Schools	.55	.53	.37	.65

Measurement of Different Aspects of Civics. For the purpose of ascertaining whether each of the three parts of the test actually measures a different aspect of civics the scores made on one part of the test were correlated with the scores made on the other two parts. This relationship is expressed in terms of coefficients of correlation in Table X. From this evidence it is probably safe to conclude that each part does not measure the same aspect of civics.

³⁹The formula for the index of reliability is:

$$r_{lt} = \sqrt{r_{12}}$$

(See Monroe, Walter S., *Theory of Educational Measurements*, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1923, p. 206.)

TABLE X.—INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE THREE TESTS

Schools	TESTS		
	I-II	II-III	I-III
A	.47	.54	.53
B	.74	.57	.64
C	.64	.56	.48
D	.44	.37	.27
E	.48	.53	.33
F	.56	.49	.41
All Schools	.55	.45	.38

Standardization of the Test. In its present form the test has been administered to approximately three thousand five hundred pupils who had just finished a course in high school civics. It has also been given to approximately four thousand eight hundred pupils of the eighth and ninth grade who had just finished a year's work in community civics.

Norms for the test will be found in the Appendix.

CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Had this investigation been carried out at a later date at the conclusion of other researches in the field there is reason to believe that a great deal more might have been accomplished. Practically all of the material prerequisite to the building of the test had to be gathered from many sources and reorganized so that it could be used to advantage. Therefore, since this investigation constitutes a pioneer effort there are bound to be certain natural limitations in the constructed test and in the methods used in its derivation. Irrespective of these limitations the following generalizations seem justifiable:

1. The history of civics shows that early instruction was largely confined to a study of the Constitution and its interpretation. In recent years much progress may be noted out of which has come a new type of civics embracing a broad field of subject matter emphasizing the political, social, and economic aspects of local, state, and national government. Community civics consists of an introductory study of government, with special emphasis on the local unit, and the duties and obligations of citizenship. This course is usually offered in the eighth or ninth grade while a more advanced course of civics covering the field in a more detailed fashion and emphasizing the national unit of government is offered in the eleventh or twelfth grade.

2. The five aims of instruction in civics consisting of a re-statement of purposes gathered from many sources are: to develop a practical knowledge of the governmental agencies that promote public welfare; to impress the pupil with civic responsibilities and opportunities for public service; to promote proper civic ideals and a desire to act in conformance with them; to provide for the formation of desirable civic habits; and to stimulate independent thinking and the making of impartial judgments in civic affairs.

3. A detailed analysis of the material in nine of the most outstanding textbooks in civics reveals these interesting facts: there is a wide range of topics in the modern textbooks; the social, economic, and political aspects of government are emphasized in accordance with the standards set by educators; international prob-

lems are treated in the majority of books; emphasis is being laid upon the functions as well as upon the organization of government; there is a tendency for most books to point out to the pupil the specific duties and responsibilities of citizenship; and most of them suggest interesting projects which provide opportunities for the application of the principles of government.

4. For the most part the material used in the test was selected upon the basis of the foregoing researches. Co-operating teachers checked the test material against their own courses of study which was of great assistance in shaping the test so that it would conform to teaching practice in the schools.

5. The constructed test is designed to measure the achievement of pupils in civics. There was a definite attempt to select exercises emphasizing understanding of the vocabulary of civics, mastery of the facts of civics, and the application of the principles of civics to practical situations. Stated in slightly different fashion, the exercises emphasize information, habits, thinking, ideals, attitudes, and appreciations. It is evident that all these aspects of civics are included in the three tests which have been constructed.

6. In the absence of more reliable and satisfactory criteria of validity, the correlation was found between the test scores and teachers' grades. The validity of the test in so far as measured by this standard is fairly well established by the resulting coefficient.

7. The high reliability coefficient which was obtained by the correlation of scores made on the two halves of the test gives satisfactory evidence of the reliability of the test.

8. The two forms of the test cover the same subject matter and are of equal difficulty.

9. The test may be used for the following purposes: diagnosis, classification, measurement of progress, and comparison of classes.

10. Test results may be employed to determine what particular type of instruction is most needed by the individual pupil or the class as a whole. Remedial work may then be intelligently directed.

11. Norms for the test have been gathered from all parts of the country. These standards are based upon eight thousand three hundred and seventy-one cases. Percentile scores are supplied for the junior high school as well as for the senior high

school. Co-operating teachers were agreed that the test was satisfactory for use in both the junior and senior high school.

This investigation, while it has contributed something in a small way to the development of a test for the measurement of ability in civics, has accomplished much in pointing out many opportunities for further experimentation. There is still much work to be done in this field. Undoubtedly one of the greatest needs is that of a measuring instrument which would give reliable information concerning the development of civic attitudes, civic ideals, and civic habits. An attempt has been made in this test to measure these outcomes in a general way but there is considerable evidence to show that more specialized tests are needed. It is hoped that this effort may eventuate in stimulating interest in further research in this field.

APPENDIX

USES OF THE TEST⁴⁰

Diagnosis. By the application of this test the teacher will be greatly assisted in determining the pupil's ability in civics and consequently will be able to meet the outstanding needs of the pupil with the most effective and efficient instruction.

Classification. In all high school classes where numbers permit, the most effective instruction results from classification of the pupils into homogeneous groups. In groups of approximately equal ability the slow pupils are not discouraged by the forging ahead of the superior pupils, and the superior pupils are not hindered in their progress in the subject by the slow pupils. The civics test will aid materially in the grouping of pupils in this subject.

Measurement of Progress. An accurate testing of the pupils' ability in a class by one form of a test at the beginning of the year or term and by a repetition of the same form or another form at the end of the year or term furnishes a valuable measure of individual and class progress. By this means one may also compare the relative efficiency of different methods of instruction.

Comparison of Classes. When the test results are available, comparisons may be made between the achievement of pupils at the beginning and the end of the school year, between the achievement in one building and that in other buildings in the same city or that in the city as a whole, and between the achievement in one building and that in other cities or in particular buildings therein.

DIRECTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING

To administer the test begin by saying, "We shall now pass out the test booklets. As soon as you receive one you may begin filling the blanks in the upper part of the first page, giving your name, age, etc. When you have finished; lay your pencil down and wait for further directions. Do not open the booklet."

⁴⁰From Brown-Woody Civics Test: Manual. Copyright, 1928, by World Book Company, Publishers, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

Have a test booklet laid right side up on the desk before each pupil. Allow time for all to fill the blanks. Then say: "This is a test to see how well you have mastered the study of civics. It consists of three parts, but as soon as you finish one part you are to go right on with the next. When I tell you to begin, read the directions for Part I and proceed with the test accordingly.

"You will be given 35 minutes for the test. Do not ask any questions during the test. If you finish before the time is up, look over your paper and correct any errors you have made. Ready; begin."

Note the exact time that the pupils begin the test. At the end of 10 minutes say, "Even though you have not finished Part I, stop working on it and go on immediately to Part II." At the end of 15 minutes more (25 minutes from the beginning) say, "Even though you have not finished Part II, go on immediately to Part III." When the full 35 minutes (10 minutes for Part III) are up, say, "Stop!" and have the papers collected at once.

(The time limit of the test has been set at thirty-five minutes. This period is sufficiently long for practically all pupils to finish the test.)

CIVICS TEST

By Arold W. Brown

EXAMINATION: FORM A*

For Grades 7 to 12

Do not open this paper until you are told to do so. Fill these blanks, giving your name, age, etc. Write plainly.

Name _____
(First name, initial, and last name)

Age last birthday _____ years. Grade or class _____

School _____

City _____

Teacher _____ Date of this exam _____

*From Brown-Woody Civics Test: Examination Form A. Copyright, 1926, by World Book Company, Publishers, Yonkers-on-Hudson. New York.

How many semesters (including the present one) have you studied Civics?-----

How many semesters (including the present one) have you studied United States History?-----

PART	SCORE
I	
II	
III	
Total	

Directions. This is a test to see how well you have mastered the study of civics. It consists of three parts, but as soon as you finish one part you are to go right on with the next. When I tell you to begin, read the directions for Part I and proceed with the test accordingly.

You will be given 35 minutes for the test. Do not ask any questions during the test. If you finish before the time is up, look over your paper and correct any errors you have made.

PART I. CIVIC VOCABULARY

Directions. Draw a line under the word, or group of words, in parentheses, which, in a civic sense, most nearly means the same as the first word in each line.

Begin here.

1. statute—(law, constitution, tradition, custom)
2. thrift—(stinginess, riches, greed, economy)
3. co-operation—(unselfishness, working-together, harmony, without friction)
4. urban—(pertaining to travel, pertaining to country, pertaining to city, pertaining to street cars)
5. treason—(punishment, defeat, betrayal, defiance)
6. federal—(local, state, national, American)
7. wages—(pay, check, money, credit)
8. authority—(influence, control, action, commission)
9. occupation—(work, job, task, vocation)
10. jurisdiction—(enforcing law, granting a franchise, establishing a principle, having authority)

11. community—(locality, number of workers, group of people with common interests, densely populated section)
12. laborer—(poor man, worker, barber, farmer)
13. conservation—(preservation, improvement, consideration, protecting forest)
14. impeach—(imprison, maintain, arrest, accuse)
15. juvenile—(thoughtless, care free, youthful, elderly)
16. revenue—(wealth, taxes, public income, protective tariff)
17. population—(citizens, adults, inhabitants, taxpayers)
18. transportation—(manufacturing, selling, storing, carrying)
19. consumer—(buyer, owner, user, producer)
20. delegate—(official representative, attendant, office holder, permanent chairman)
21. conference—(secret meeting, formal discussion, public consultation, conversation)
22. evolution—(maturity, creation, transformation, development)
23. commodity—(profits, goods, bonds, money)
24. enforce—(compel, plead, command, assist)
25. regulate—(limit, inspect, own, control)
26. liberty—(safety assured, pardon granted, license to act, freedom under law)
27. treaty—(law, truce, agreement, charter)
28. recreation—(going-to-theater, play, leisure, having-a-holiday)
29. prevention—(hindrance, remedy, cause, limit)
30. liability—(mortgage, debt, note, bond)
31. improve—(observe, control, safeguard, better)
32. democratic—(advisory, popular, party, local)
33. resources—(cash, property, forest, wealth)
34. production—(labor, earning power, output, invention)
35. legal—(lawful, constitutional, moral, ethical)
36. policy—(principle of action, plan, platform, conviction)
37. donation—(gift, monument, library, collection)
38. immigrant—(foreigner, foreigner in America, foreigner coming into a country to settle, foreigner without money)

39. appoint—(elect, select, agree, delegate)
 40. assess—(to register, to evaluate officially, to make inventory, to collect taxes)

Do not stop; go right on with Part II.

Number right----- (Score, Part I)

PART II. CIVIC INFORMATION

Directions. Draw a line under the right answer to each question.

Begin here.

- | | |
|--|--------|
| 1. Is the United States a democracy? | YES NO |
| 2. Is the Constitution of the United States the highest law of the land? | YES NO |
| 3. May any adult become a candidate for office, local or national? | YES NO |
| 4. As a general rule does ignorance of the law excuse its violation? | YES NO |
| 5. Is the President of the United States the executive officer of the nation? | YES NO |
| 6. Is a bill the same thing as a law? | YES NO |
| 7. Does the Secretary of State have charge of military affairs? | YES NO |
| 8. May a person accused of crime be tried secretly? | YES NO |
| 9. Is New York the nation's capital? | YES NO |
| 10. Must one be 21 years of age to vote at a presidential election? | YES NO |
| 11. Is government a form of community co-operation? | YES NO |
| 12. Are the railroads and coal mines owned and operated by the government? | YES NO |
| 13. Is the President elected for six years? | YES NO |
| 14. Are there ten executive departments in the Cabinet? | YES NO |
| 15. Is freedom of religious worship denied by the Constitution of the United States? | YES NO |

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|-----|---|--------|
| 16. | Are there any restrictions on immigration to the United States? | YES NO |
| 17. | May the President remove members of the Cabinet at any time? | YES NO |
| 18. | Is the Governor the legislative head of a state? | YES NO |
| 19. | Are the Justices of the United States Supreme Court appointed for a term of four years? | YES NO |
| 20. | Is there a difference between natural and legal monopolies? | YES NO |
| 21. | Is the Supreme Court of the United States the most important tribunal of the nation? | YES NO |
| 22. | Does a constitution define and limit the powers of government? | YES NO |
| 23. | May the President declare war on a foreign country? | YES NO |
| 24. | Is it wise for us to conserve our natural resources? | YES NO |
| 25. | Does each star in the American flag represent one of the original colonies? | YES NO |
| 26. | Are the District Courts the lowest federal courts in the United States? | YES NO |
| 27. | Is a citizen necessarily a voter? | YES NO |
| 28. | Is there at present an income tax levied by the federal government? | YES NO |
| 29. | Does any written law forbid the President being elected for three terms? | YES NO |
| 30. | Are the legislatures of all the states made up of two houses? | YES NO |
| 31. | Does the United States Senate consist of ninety-eight members? | YES NO |
| 32. | Is the public library one of the city's recreational agencies? | YES NO |
| 33. | Do industrial depressions decrease employment? | YES NO |
| 34. | Generally speaking, will education increase one's earning power? | YES NO |
| 35. | Do justices of the peace preside over the highest courts in the county? | YES NO |

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|-----|---|--------|
| 36. | Does the government owe you any money if you own a greenback or a silver certificate? | YES NO |
| 37. | Are most of the taxes levied by the federal government direct taxes? | YES NO |
| 38. | Are corporations chartered exclusively by the federal government? | YES NO |
| 39. | May a bill become a law without the President's signature? | YES NO |
| 40. | Do good roads benefit the city as well as the country folks? | YES NO |
| 41. | Is it possible for the United States to maintain a policy of entire isolation in international affairs? | YES NO |
| 42. | Are most laws the outgrowth of custom and public opinion? | YES NO |
| 43. | Are most banks regulated largely by the city government? | YES NO |
| 44. | Do the rights of citizenship imply corresponding duties? | YES NO |
| 45. | Are there any restrictions placed on the use of private property? | YES NO |
| 46. | Should public opinion play only a small part in a democratic government? | YES NO |
| 47. | May a person in the United States be deprived of liberty or property without due process of law? | YES NO |
| 48. | Do national elections always take place on the Tuesday following the first Monday in November? | YES NO |
| 49. | Are city charters granted by the national government? | YES NO |
| 50. | Would it be wise to abolish all political parties in a democracy? | YES NO |
| 51. | Ought government to promote the interest of each by promoting the interests of all? | YES NO |
| 52. | Are county officers in most cases elected by the direct vote of the people? | YES NO |
| 53. | May state and local governments raise revenue only by levying a general property tax? | YES NO |

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|-----|--|--------|
| 54. | Does Congress have little power to regulate interstate and foreign commerce? | YES NO |
| 55. | Are there any state or federal laws regulating the operation of corporations? | YES NO |
| 56. | Is the long ballot a more effective instrument of democracy than the short ballot? | YES NO |
| 57. | Is there need for reorganization of state government? | YES NO |
| 58. | May a bill for the raising of revenue originate in the United States Senate? | YES NO |
| 59. | Does money serve as a medium of exchange and a measure of value? | YES NO |
| 60. | Do practically all the bills introduced into the state legislatures become laws? | YES NO |
| 61. | Are copyrights and patent rights sometimes granted by the several state governments? | YES NO |
| 62. | Must a public utility operating within the limits of a city secure a franchise? | YES NO |
| 63. | Does the city council in most cases manage school affairs? | YES NO |
| 64. | May the municipal government make provisions for recreation within its limits? | YES NO |
| 65. | Do some states have provisions for the regulation of child labor? | YES NO |
| 66. | Have civil service examinations tended to make government less efficient? | YES NO |
| 67. | Is the League of Nations a plan for the co-operation of nations? | YES NO |
| 68. | Is it the business of city government to make provision for light, gas, water, and paving? | YES NO |
| 69. | Do all cities have the same plan of city government? | YES NO |
| 70. | Does a majority vote mean the same thing as a plurality vote? | YES NO |

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|---|--------|
| 71. Should the various units of government adopt the budget system? | YES NO |
| 72. Does the referendum refer to the initiation of legislation directly by the people? | YES NO |
| 73. Do state governments sometimes care for defectives, blind, deaf, and feeble-minded? | YES NO |
| 74. Is the United States census taken every fifth year? | YES NO |
| 75. Do both federal and state governments foster health work and encourage agriculture? | YES NO |
| 76. Do our diplomatic representatives seek to cultivate the friendship of foreign governments? | YES NO |
| 77. Does the Supreme Court of the United States decide on the constitutionality of laws? | YES NO |
| 78. Is there usually great concentration of authority under the mayor-council form of government? | YES NO |
| 79. May cities pass ordinances relating to housing, transportation, and health? | YES NO |
| 80. Is it true that the individual citizen has no part in making government efficient? | YES NO |

Do not stop; go right on with Part III.

Number right----- (Score, Part II)

PART III. CIVIC THINKING

Section 1

Directions. Imagine that you are a voter. There are two candidates seeking the office of mayor of your city. The qualities and characteristics of each are listed below. We shall call one Mr. A and the other Mr. B. You are to select the candidate who is, in your opinion, best fitted to perform the duties of that office. Read carefully the characteristics and qualities of each before you make your decision. Place an X in the square following the name of the candidate for whom you would vote.

Begin here.**Mr. A** ☐

Legally qualified for office
 Relative of Governor of the
 State
 Ex-senator
 University graduate
 Member of Board of Commerce
 President of an industrial cor-
 poration
 Member of several fraternal
 orders
 "Friend of the laboring man"
 Wealthy
 Critical of city management
 Well known in social circles
 Church member
 Fluent speaker
 Conservative
 Friendly
 Efficient politician

Mr. B ☐

Legally qualified for office
 Experienced as a lawyer
 Previously an alderman of his
 ward
 Junior College graduate
 Member of Board of Commerce
 Successful business man in the
 community
 Interested in city's welfare
 Far-sighted
 Conscientious
 Honest in dealing
 Prominent in business circles
 Sterling character
 "Man of few words"
 Progressive
 Intellectual
 Organizer

After you have selected one of the above candidates, place a check mark (✓) before the qualities or characteristics that determined your choice.

Section 2

Directions. Read this paragraph and the five statements under it. Then draw a circle around the number of the statement that gives the best answer to the question asked in the paragraph. Proceed with the other paragraphs in the same manner.

Begin here.

1. Suppose that a sensational hold-up has been staged by three masked bandits in which \$10,000 worth of stocks, bonds, and valuable papers have been stolen from a bank in the heart of the city. In the chase that ensued after the discovery of the robbery, one policeman was fatally wounded and another seriously injured

by bullets from the guns of the bandits. Suppose that you know that the bandits have taken refuge in a house in your neighborhood. As a citizen, why should you give this information to the police?

1. Your own life is in danger.
2. Your home may be robbed of valuables.
3. You have always feared bandits.
4. Criminals against society should be restrained.
5. You may receive a large reward.

2. Some of the members of your community are interested in securing a park for the use of the children in the west end of the city. You live on the east side of the city and would profit little, if at all, if the proposition should carry at the election. You are fully aware that a large sum of money is needed to purchase the property and that you must assume your share of the financial burden by paying a higher rate of tax on the property which you own. Why should you vote for the proposition?

1. Your property will increase in value.
2. Friends will benefit if the issue carries.
3. You may want to use the park.
4. It will entail but slightly higher taxes.
5. The park will benefit the community.

3. An Amendment to the Constitution has been proposed by Congress. After lengthy debate and serious consideration it has been passed by both houses and is subsequently dispatched to the several states of the Union for ratification. If some one, after hearing about the proposed Amendment, inquired of you how many states must ratify the Amendment before it could become a part of the Constitution, which of the following answers would you make?

1. Three-fourths of the forty-eight states.
2. One half of the total number of states.
3. All states having more than two representatives.
4. Two-thirds of the states of the Union.
5. All of the states of the Union.

4. A very important bill passes both houses of Congress and is sent to the President for his signature. The bill reaches the President six days before the end of the special session and is laid aside for later consideration. Congress adjourns. Two weeks

later the unsigned bill is discovered partly hidden by other official matter on the President's desk. What happened to the bill?

1. It became a law without the President's signature.
2. It was then signed and forthwith became a law.
3. It did not become a law.
4. It was returned to the houses for future consideration.
5. It was made a law by a two-thirds vote of both houses without the President's signature.

5. A United States Senator from your district decides during a Congressional session to tender his resignation immediately because of failing health. At the time of making his decision the legislature is not in session and will not meet for four months. The Senator is anxious to have his state properly represented and to have the office officially filled. What should he do?

1. Hand his resignation to the Vice-President.
2. Authorize a friend to take his seat in the Senate.
3. Formally ask the Senate to appoint a successor.
4. Tender his resignation to the Governor of his own state.
5. Notify the candidate who opposed him at the time of his election to take the seat.

6. Suppose that you are reading the daily newspaper which carries an account of a young postal clerk, who, finding himself hard pressed for funds, has robbed the mail of valuables. While the young man was attempting to dispose of them in the city of X, he was apprehended and brought before the court to answer the charge against him. In which of the following courts would the case be disposed of?

1. Justice Court in the city of X.
2. United States District Court 150 miles away.
3. County Court in an adjoining city.
4. Municipal Court in the largest nearby city.
5. United States Supreme Court at Washington.

7. Mr. L lives on a little farm just outside the limits of the city of X in the state of R. Mr. L wakes up one morning and finds that thieves have taken grain, chickens, and other possessions from his premises during the night. Mr. L wishes to bring the thieves to justice. To whom should he report his losses?

1. The chief of police of the city of X.
2. The chairman of the Board of Public Safety of the city of X.
3. The State Department of Justice in the state of R.
4. The supervisor of his township.
5. The county sheriff.

8. In the city of N there are two blocks of a particular street which at certain seasons of the year are practically impassable. While the street is not considered one of the main thoroughfares, the persons living on it are greatly inconvenienced by its muddy condition. The merchants' delivery wagons refuse to come into that section, the property values are somewhat affected, and the residents are obliged to keep their cars in the garages for days at a time—all because of the condition of the street. The property owners are desirous of having the necessary minor repairs made to put the street in good condition. The city is operating under the mayor-council form of government. In order to get action on the matter, what is the best thing for the property owners to do?

1. Prepare a petition asking for necessary repairs, secure the signatures of all property owners, and present it to the councilman elected from the ward with the request that he bring the matter before the council.
2. Have all the residents and property owners on the street write form-letters to the mayor informing him of the condition of the road.
3. Urge that the matter be presented to the voters at the next regular city election and write press communications from time to time.
4. Report the matter to the county road commissioner, with an estimate of the cost of repairs, and urge him to co-operate in securing the improvements.
5. Order the necessary materials and secure sufficient labor to do the work satisfactorily and then present the total bill to the city treasurer and demand payment for the same.

Number right----- $\times 3$ -----(*Score, Part III*)

CIVICS TEST*By Arold W. Brown***EXAMINATION: FORM B*****For Grades 7 to 12**

Do not open this paper until you are told to do so. Fill these blanks, giving your name, age, etc. Write plainly.

Name _____
(First name, initial, and last name)

Age last birthday _____ years. Grade or class _____

School _____

City _____

Teacher _____ Date of this exam _____

How many semesters (including the present one) have you studied Civics? _____

How many semesters (including the present one) have you studied United States History? _____

PART	SCORE
I	
II	
III	
Total	

Directions. This is a test to see how well you have mastered the study of civics. It consists of three parts, but as soon as you finish one part you are to go right on with the next. When I tell you to begin, read the directions for Part I and proceed with the test accordingly.

You will be given 35 minutes for the test. Do not ask any questions during the test. If you finish before the time is up, look over your paper and correct any errors you have made.

*From Brown-Woody Civics Test: Examination Form B. Copyright, 1928, by World Book Company, Publishers, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

PART I. CIVIC VOCABULARY

Directions. Draw a line under the word, or group of words, in parentheses, which, in a civic sense, most nearly means the same as the first word in each line.

Begin here.

1. power—(rule, authority, force, strength)
2. protect—(guard, fortify, help, injure)
3. govern—(organize, police, provide, control)
4. establish—(introduce, maintain, fix firmly, place)
5. privilege—(duty, right, favor, advantage)

6. executive—(official, secretary, member, administrator)
7. elect—(appoint, select, discharge, vote)
8. function—(performance, regulation, value, form)
9. prohibit—(destroy, forbid, encourage, prevent)
10. create—(use, grow, produce, develop)

11. oppose—(resist, debate, crush, defeat)
12. public—(taxpayers, people, voters, adults)
13. amend—(force, measure, alter, forgive)
14. legislate—(enact a law, prepare a bill, promise votes, enforce an ordinance)
15. debate—(speak, decide, inquire, argue)

16. reform—(punish, correct, convict, judge)
17. municipal—(nation, city, county, state)
18. ownership—(property, money, possession, wealth)
19. tax—(assess, collect, pay, burden)
20. lawful—(civil, judicial, legal, fixed)

21. preservation—(conservation, destruction, restoration, duration)
22. adjourn—(open, proceed, continue, close)
23. consent—(veto, endorse, agree, refuse)
24. accuse—(blame, punish, convict, curse)
25. appropriations—(tax collections, power-to-take, local taxes, money-set-aside)

26. ratify—(sign, permit, consent, approve)
27. petition—(request, change, refuse, demand)
28. eligible—(prepared, qualified, suitable, unfit)
29. suffrage—(caucus, restriction, vote, responsibility)
30. interstate—(in the state, between cities, out of the nation, between states)
31. defective—(healthy, imperfect, unfortunate, deaf)
32. environment—(country, persons, outside, surroundings)
33. apportion—(gather, distribute, lengthen, satisfy)
34. maintain—(hide, destroy, collect, support)
35. nominate—(elect, petition, name, promote)
36. efficient—(capable, satisfactory, speedy, useful)
37. employ—(assist, work, discharge, hire)
38. arbitrate—(quarrel, strike, settle peacefully, fight to the end)
39. debt—(fault, resource, bills, obligation)
40. administration—(operation, management, authorization, responsibility)

Do not stop; go right on with Part II.

Number right----- (Score, Part I)

PART II. CIVIC INFORMATION

Directions. Draw a line under the right answer to each question.

Begin here.

- | | |
|--|--------|
| 1. Is the United States an aristocracy? | YES NO |
| 2. May any one 21 years of age vote at a presidential election? | YES NO |
| 3. Is the Constitution of the United States the supreme law of the land? | YES NO |
| 4. Is the income tax levied by the federal government a direct tax? | YES NO |
| 5. Are members of the Cabinet ever elected by popular vote? | YES NO |
| 6. Is the Secretary of War commander-in-chief of the Army? | YES NO |
| 7. Is the United States operating on the gold standard? | YES NO |

8. Is government really a necessity in modern society? YES NO
9. Are most corporations regulated to a large extent by the state? YES NO
10. Was Philadelphia ever the nation's capital? YES NO
11. May a bill twice passed by Congress ever become a law without the President's signature? YES NO
12. May state governments as well as Congress grant patents and copyrights? YES NO
13. Is any state entitled to send three Senators to the United States Senate? YES NO
14. Does the government own and operate most of the large industries of the country? YES NO
15. Does the United States census reveal only the number of persons in the United States? YES NO
16. Should one study conditions before going to the polls to vote? YES NO
17. Is the Vice-President of the United States elected for six years? YES NO
18. Is the "check and balance" system still operative in modern government? YES NO
19. Does the President's Cabinet consist of ten members? YES NO
20. Do all states have uniform suffrage requirements? YES NO
21. Do all counties derive their powers from the state? YES NO
22. May any state enter into an agreement or sign a treaty with a foreign country? YES NO
23. Does a state have any power to regulate interstate commerce? YES NO
24. Are there 20 Amendments to the Constitution of the United States? YES NO
25. May Congress make a law abridging freedom of speech or of the press? YES NO
26. Must a bill for raising revenue originate in the House of Representatives? YES NO
27. Is education necessary for efficiency under a democratic government? YES NO

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|-----|---|--------|
| 28. | Are customs taxes on exported goods? | YES NO |
| 29. | Do national elections take place on the Tuesday following the first Monday in September? | YES NO |
| 30. | Is there need for reform in county government throughout the country? | YES NO |
| 31. | May a government be both democratic and efficient? | YES NO |
| 32. | Does an education usually help one to earn a better living? | YES NO |
| 33. | Should all political parties be abolished in the interest of better government? | YES NO |
| 34. | Should every community provide sufficient recreation to keep everybody healthy and happy? | YES NO |
| 35. | May public opinion decrease the power of a law? | YES NO |
| 36. | Do practically all bills introduced in Congress become laws? | YES NO |
| 37. | Does the United States now place any restrictions on immigration? | YES NO |
| 38. | May the Senate remove a member of the President's Cabinet at any time? | YES NO |
| 39. | Can the Governor introduce a bill in the state legislature? | YES NO |
| 40. | Does continued and widespread employment usually indicate hard times? | YES NO |
| 41. | Are the Justice Courts the highest tribunals in the United States? | YES NO |
| 42. | Are the United States Senators elected for a term of only four years? | YES NO |
| 43. | Are city charters always granted by the state government? | YES NO |
| 44. | Do all of the state legislatures have two houses? | YES NO |
| 45. | Do high taxes always insure efficient government? | YES NO |
| 46. | Is there urgent need for the conservation of our natural resources? | YES NO |
| 47. | Do cities place any restrictions on the use of private property? | YES NO |

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|-----|--|--------|
| 48. | Do many states require a board of health in each town or city? | YES NO |
| 49. | Does the Constitution of the United States deny any one freedom of religious worship? | YES NO |
| 50. | May all citizens of the United States register and vote at a regular local election? | YES NO |
| 51. | Does paper money stand for real value? | YES NO |
| 52. | Is the League of Nations an instrument for promoting peace in the world? | YES NO |
| 53. | Do civil service examinations tend to make government less efficient? | YES NO |
| 54. | Is the Attorney General an executive officer of the nation? | YES NO |
| 55. | Do practically all American cities now have a public library? | YES NO |
| 56. | Have some industrial disputes been satisfactorily settled by arbitration? | YES NO |
| 57. | Should all cities have the same form of government? | YES NO |
| 58. | Are the duties of citizenship as important as its rights? | YES NO |
| 59. | Are laws made in order to regulate the actions of people? | YES NO |
| 60. | May a case be appealed from the United States Supreme Court to a higher tribunal? | YES NO |
| 61. | Does the income from postage defray all expenses of the United States postal service? | YES NO |
| 62. | Does the initiative refer to the submitting of legislation to the people for decision? | YES NO |
| 63. | Do the state and federal governments exercise control over industrial corporations? | YES NO |
| 64. | Do local communities have power to charter a bank to operate within its limits? | YES NO |
| 65. | Should budget systems be adopted by the state governments? | YES NO |

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|-----|--|--------|
| 66. | Does the strength of the nation depend on home training and home environment? | YES NO |
| 67. | Do some states maintain schools, hospitals, and homes for the feeble-minded, deaf, blind, etc.? | YES NO |
| 68. | Does the federal government alone control foreign relations? | YES NO |
| 69. | Is it difficult to place responsibility under the city manager type of government? | YES NO |
| 70. | Is the Governor an official representative of the people in affairs of state? | YES NO |
| 71. | Is a minority vote larger than a majority vote? | YES NO |
| 72. | Are most county offices filled by appointment? | YES NO |
| 73. | Are laws sometimes passed which prove ineffective and unfair in operation? | YES NO |
| 74. | Should the United States maintain entire isolation in all international affairs? | YES NO |
| 75. | Do most American cities give evidence of intelligent city planning? | YES NO |
| 76. | Are United States Senators apportioned among the states on the basis of census population? | YES NO |
| 77. | Does the national government spend more money for military affairs than for educational affairs? | YES NO |
| 78. | Can any community be successful in government without the co-operation of its citizens? | YES NO |
| 79. | Does the Supreme Court of the United States decide on the constitutionality of law? | YES NO |
| 80. | Is one of the first duties of citizenship obedience to law? | YES NO |

Do not stop; go right on with Part III.

Number right----- (Score, Part II)

PART III. CIVIC THINKING

Section 1

Directions. Imagine that you are a voter. There are two candidates seeking the office of mayor of your city. The qualities and characteristics of each are listed below. We shall call one Mr. A and the other Mr. B. You are to select the candidate

who is, in your opinion, best fitted to perform the duties of that office. Read carefully the characteristics and qualities of each before you make your decision. Place an X in the square following the name of the candidate for whom you would vote.

Begin here.

Mr. A

☐

Mr. B

☐

Legally qualified for office
 Previously member of city council
 College graduate
 Deliberate in judgment
 Fearless in politics
 Church supporter
 Fair in business
 Endorsed by merchants
 Member of Board of Education
 Possesses many firm friends
 Insists on law enforcement
 Works well with others
 Respected citizen
 Understands city needs
 Cashier of local bank
 "Booster for city"

Legally qualified for office
 Formerly city postmaster
 University graduate
 Quick-witted
 Supported by politicians
 Church member
 "Guardian of city treasury"
 Likes popular favor
 Member of Patriotic League
 Boasts many acquaintances
 Successful corporation lawyer
 Well-known sportsman
 Kind to his family
 Member of important fraternal orders
 Manager of local industry
 Big taxpayer

After you have selected one of the above candidates, place a check mark (✓) before the qualities or characteristics that determined your choice.

Section 2

Directions. Read this paragraph and the five statements under it.

Then draw a circle around the number of the statement that gives the best answer to the question asked in the paragraph.

Proceed with the other paragraphs in the same manner.

Begin here.

1. The daily newspaper carries an account of an automobile accident in which a man was severely injured. The man was crossing a main thoroughfare with other pedestrians on the "GO" signal in the traffic tower, when an anxious and reckless driver,

willfully disregarding the "STOP" signal, slipped out of one of the lines of standing traffic and drove his car into the man, knocking him down upon the pavement. An examination at the receiving hospital revealed that the man had suffered internal and head injuries, either of which might prove fatal. The driver of the car was arrested by a traffic officer who witnessed the accident. Why should this driver have been brought to justice?

1. He was in too much of a hurry.
2. He might have wrecked another car.
3. He did not put on his brakes.
4. He thought the officer would not arrest him.
5. He willfully broke a traffic law.

2. Suppose your community is very much in need of a new high school. The old building has proved very unsatisfactory for several years because the rooms are poorly lighted and ventilated, the classrooms are overcrowded, many extensive and expensive repairs are needed, and the structure is an undoubted fire trap. As usual, some of the citizens are opposed to the proposition and are actively campaigning against it for personal or selfish reasons. If the new building is voted for at the next election, all property owners will have to pay slightly higher taxes for several years to cover the expense of construction. Why should you as a good citizen and a taxpayer vote for a new high school?

1. The old building is a disgrace to the community.
2. The whole community will be greatly benefited.
3. A new high school will advertise the city.
4. Most of the pupils want a new plant with modern equipment.
5. The issue will carry by a large majority.

3. An important federal bill providing for the improvement of certain government property was favorably reported out of the committee, presented to the House of Representatives for serious attention and consideration, discussed at length, voted upon, and approved by a majority vote of the members present at the session. According to the usual procedure the bill was referred to the Senate for its approval or disapproval or amendment. After prolonged discussion and heated debate, the yeas and nays were

called for and ordered. The result was announced: yeas, 26; nays, 44; not voting, 18. What became of the bill?

1. It naturally became a law.
2. It was presented to the President for his signature.
3. It had to be reconsidered by the Senate on the following day.
4. It did not become a law.
5. It was laid on the table for later consideration.

4. Several cases of typhoid fever have developed in a small community and caused a few of the citizens to become justly alarmed. While no fatalities have been reported, there is a possibility that unless proper precautions are immediately taken by the local health authorities an epidemic of the disease may break out, with its attendant illness and death. Since the local health authorities refuse to do anything either by way of quarantine or investigation, what in most states is the best thing for an interested citizen to do for the immediate protection of the community?

1. Secure the arrest of the local health authorities.
2. Write, wire, or phone the State Health Department.
3. Elect more efficient health authorities as soon as possible.
4. Ask for an investigation by the United States Public Health Service at Washington.
5. Notify the health authorities in the nearest city.

5. Two weeks previous to the opening of the "long" session of Congress, Mr. D, United States Senator from the state of A, after serving one year of his term, decides to move into another state, where business interests demand his personal attention. The acceptance of his resignation creates a vacancy in the United States Senate, which must be filled if the state is to be properly represented. Assuming that the state legislature grants the necessary authority for temporary appointment, which of the following shall be responsible for the selection of a Senator?

1. Senate of the state of A.
2. United States Senate.
3. People of the state of A.

4. United States House of Representatives.
5. Governor of the state of A.

6. A certain city has been suffering financial losses as the result of some one passing counterfeit bills of various denominations. Since there are no clues leading to the identity of the culprit, the local police department has been unable to do much about the case. A merchant, while filling a bill of goods, recalls that his customer bears some resemblance to the man who had succeeded earlier in the month in passing two \$5 counterfeit bills which the bank declared to be worthless. Without divulging his suspicions to any one in the store, the merchant calls the police station. The officers arrive, question the man, who admits his guilt, and take him to the prison to await trial on a charge of counterfeiting. In what court should this case be heard?

1. United States District Court.
2. Justice Court.
3. Municipal Court of the city.
4. United States Supreme Court.
5. State Supreme Court.

7. Mr. D, who operates a small department store four miles from the city of X and two miles from the town of R, has received a warning that thieves have planned to loot his place of business during the night. Being unable to protect his property in this emergency, he is obliged to call for the protection of the law. If Mr. D came to you for advice, what would be the best thing to tell him to do?

1. Communicate with the county sheriff or his nearest deputy.
2. Call the police in the city of X.
3. Telephone the commander of the state militia ten miles away.
4. Notify the marshal in the town of R.
5. Call the nearest justice of the peace.

8. In the city of S there are four important thoroughfares in one of the residential sections that are greatly in need of additional street lights. During certain parts of the year these streets are very dark because the scattered electric lights hanging in the

center of the streets do not supply sufficient light to penetrate the thick foliage of the numerous trees along the pavements. Most of the front yards are considered improperly lighted at all times of the year. Some of the residents in this section of the city have found it necessary to turn on their porch lights for hours on unusually dark and stormy nights, to afford greater safety to persons using the sidewalks. This is unquestionably a service which should be rendered by the city. The addition of a relatively small number of street lights, similar to those already in operation, will adequately meet the needs of these residents. Ways and means of securing better lighting facilities have been informally discussed from time to time by interested taxpayers, but nothing of a definite character has been done to obtain them. The city is operating under the mayor-council form of government. What do you think is the best thing for the property owners in this section to do in order to secure additional street lights?

1. Present the matter in writing to the county officials who advise and act on problems of general welfare.
2. Communicate the desires of the residents of this section to the Public Utilities Commission or other body of state authorities directly responsible for the regulation of public lighting service.
3. Stress the necessity for the desired improvements in the columns of the local newspaper or other publication read by the voters of the city.
4. Instruct the councilman representing the section to present to the city council a petition, already signed by the property owners, asking for the necessary improvements.
5. Let the property owners of the section secure bids from various construction companies, sign proper contracts, guarantee payment, and order the immediate installation of additional street lights.

Number right_____×3=_____ (Score, Part III)

CIVICS TEST

Key For Form A

PART I. CIVIC VOCABULARY

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. law | 21. formal discussion |
| 2. economy | 22. development |
| 3. working-together | 23. goods |
| 4. pertaining to city | 24. compel |
| 5. betrayal | 25. control |
| 6. national | 26. freedom under law |
| 7. pay | 27. agreement |
| 8. control | 28. play |
| 9. vocation | 29. hindrance |
| 10. having authority | 30. debt |
| 11. group of people with common interests | 31. better |
| 12. worker | 32. popular |
| 13. preservation | 33. wealth |
| 14. accuse | 34. output |
| 15. youthful | 35. lawful |
| 16. public income | 36. principle of action |
| 17. inhabitants | 37. gift |
| 18. carrying | 38. foreigner coming into a country to settle |
| 19. user | 39. select |
| 20. official representative | 40. to evaluate officially |

PART II. CIVIC INFORMATION

- | | |
|--------|---------|
| 1. Yes | 6. No |
| 2. Yes | 7. No |
| 3. No | 8. No |
| 4. No | 9. No |
| 5. Yes | 10. Yes |

11.	Yes		46.		No
12.		No	47.		No
13.		No	48.	Yes	
14.	Yes		49.		No
15.		No	50.		No
16.	Yes		51.	Yes	
17.	Yes		52.	Yes	
18.		No	53.		No
19.		No	54.		No
20.	Yes		55.	Yes	
21.	Yes		56.		No
22.	Yes		57.	Yes	
23.		No	58.		No
24.	Yes		59.	Yes	
25.		No	60.		No
26.	Yes		61.		No
27.		No	62.	Yes	
28.	Yes		63.		No
29.		No	64.	Yes	
30.	Yes		65.	Yes	
31.		No	66.		No
32.	Yes		67.	Yes	
33.	Yes		68.	Yes	
34.	Yes		69.		No
35.		No	70.		No
36.	Yes		71.	Yes	
37.		No	72.		No
38.		No	73.	Yes	
39.	Yes		74.		No
40.	Yes		75.	Yes	
41.		No	76.	Yes	
42.	Yes		77.	Yes	
43.		No	78.		No
44.	Yes		79.	Yes	
45.	Yes		80.		No

PART III. CIVIC THINKING

Section 1

Mr. B

Section 2

Ex. 1. 4

Ex. 2. 5

Ex. 3. 1

Ex. 4. 3

Ex. 5. 4

Ex. 6. 2

Ex. 7. 5

Ex. 8. 1

Key For Form B

PART I. CIVIC VOCABULARY

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. authority | 21. conservation |
| 2. guard | 22. close |
| 3. control | 23. agree |
| 4. fix firmly | 24. blame |
| 5. right | 25. money-set-aside |
| 6. administrator | 26. approve |
| 7. select | 27. request |
| 8. performance | 28. qualified |
| 9. forbid | 29. vote |
| 10. produce | 30. between states |
| 11. resist | 31. imperfect |
| 12. people | 32. surroundings |
| 13. alter | 33. distribute |
| 14. enact a law | 34. support |
| 15. argue | 35. name |
| 16. correct | 36. capable |
| 17. city | 37. hire |
| 18. possession | 38. settle peacefully |
| 19. assess | 39. obligation |
| 20. legal | 40. management |

PART II. CIVIC INFORMATION

1.	No	36.	No
2.	No	37.	Yes
3.	Yes	38.	No
4.	Yes	39.	No
5.	No	40.	No
6.	No	41.	No
7.	Yes	42.	No
8.	Yes	43.	Yes
9.	Yes	44.	Yes
10.	Yes	45.	No
11.	Yes	46.	Yes
12.	No	47.	Yes
13.	No	48.	Yes
14.	No	49.	No
15.	No	50.	No
16.	Yes	51.	Yes
17.	No	52.	Yes
18.	Yes	53.	No
19.	Yes	54.	Yes
20.	No	55.	Yes
21.	Yes	56.	Yes
22.	No	57.	No
23.	No	58.	Yes
24.	No	59.	Yes
25.	No	60.	No
26.	Yes	61.	No
27.	Yes	62.	No
28.	No	63.	Yes
29.	No	64.	No
30.	Yes	65.	Yes
31.	Yes	66.	Yes
32.	Yes	67.	Yes
33.	No	68.	Yes
34.	Yes	69.	No
35.	Yes	70.	Yes

71.	No	76.	No
72.	No	77.	Yes
73.	Yes	78.	No
74.	No	79.	Yes
75.	No	80.	Yes

PART III. CIVIC THINKING

Section 1

Mr. A

Section 2

Ex. 1.	5	Ex. 5.	5
Ex. 2.	2	Ex. 6.	1
Ex. 3.	4	Ex. 7.	1
Ex. 4.	2	Ex. 8.	4

DIRECTIONS FOR SCORING AND RECORDING

To score the test, compare each response with the correct answer and, using a colored pencil, place a check mark (✓) after each correct response or a cross (×) after each incorrect response, or both checks and crosses. Each response is either right or wrong. No partial credits are given.

The score in Part I and in Part II is the number of correct responses. This number should be written in the blank provided in the lower right-hand corner of the page. The score in Part III is found by multiplying the number of right responses by 3. First enter the number right in the lower corner of page 7, then multiply this number by 3 to obtain the score. No account is taken of the marks that are made by the pupil to indicate why he chose Mr. A or Mr. B in Section 1. The maximum scores are as follows: Part I, 40; Part II, 80; Part III, 27.

Enter the score for each part in the blank space provided on the first page of the test booklet and find the total score.

In order to secure accuracy, each paper should be scored twice and the copying and adding of the scores should be checked, since it is very difficult to avoid making one or two mistakes in the scoring of a paper. If a large number of papers are to be scored, it may be found convenient to score Part I of all the papers first, then Part II, and then Part III. This plan is convenient also when a number of scorers are working at once.

INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

Norms. The following table provides a method of interpreting results. It is read as follows (beginning at 125 in the first column and reading across):

A pupil making a score of 125 (in May) exceeded 99% of 8th grade pupils, 95% of 9th grade pupils, 78% of 11th grade pupils, and 71% of 12th grade pupils.

Note that the number of cases in each grade and the median score of the grade are given at the foot of the table. The total number of cases is 8371.

TABLE OF PERCENTILE SCORES

Score	GRADES			
	8th	9th	11th	12th
140			99	99
135			97	95
130		99	89	83
125	99	95	78	71
120	96	90	65	60
115	90	84	51	46
110	85	76	38	32
105	77	68	28	22
100	67	55	20	16
95	56	44	16	11
90	45	36	9	6
85	36	27	6	4
80	26	21	5	3
75	20	14	4	2
70	13	10	3	1
65	9	6	1	
60	7	4		
55	5	3		
50	4	2		
45	2	1		
40	1			
No. cases	2900	1963	1440	2068
Median	92	98	113	118

REMEDIAL INSTRUCTION

On the basis of the tabulated test results, the teachers can easily ascertain the particular type of instruction which needs emphasis. This generalization applies to both the needs of the individual pupils and of the class as a whole. If an individual or a class achieves very low scores on Test I, there is need for emphasis upon the understanding, meaning, and significance of the vocabulary and language of civics; on Test II, need for greater and more continuous emphasis upon the common facts and principles of the subject in order that there may be more permanent mastery of the subject matter; on Test III, need for supplementing the emphasis on information with emphasis on situations which demand the application of civic principles and which will tend to develop proper civic attitudes, ideals, and appreciations. It is recommended that the teacher study the needs of each pupil and of the class and adjust her instruction accordingly.

To obtain the greatest benefit from the test as an instrument showing the type of remedial instruction needed, it should be given at the beginning, middle, and close of the period of time set aside for the study of the subject. The test given at the beginning of the study of the subject will indicate what the pupils already know about the subject; the test at the middle of the period, what the pupils have learned thus far and what should be stressed during the remaining period of instruction; the test at the end of the period of study, what the pupils have actually learned from their instruction.

Obviously, in using the test as an instrument for guiding remedial instruction the emphasis should not be confined to drilling upon the proper answers to the questions of the test. While answers are important, it must be remembered that questions and exercises included in the test represent but a few of the large numbers which might have been selected and that adequate instruction in the subject must not be limited to the confines of this test.

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